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THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL TEACHER

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HISTORY IN THE UNIVERSITY ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

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The study of history in the University Elementary School begins with the first grade. That history is not used for the younger children in most schools is due, I believe, to the fact that people usually think of it as relating especially to political and governmental affairs. The average person, when asked why children should study history, says: "To cultivate patriotism, and to fit the children for citizenship;" meaning by this, for the duties of the voter. On the other hand, in the last few years the study of social science and economics has changed to some extent our views in regard to the nature of history, and shown us that political conditions depend largely upon industrial conditions. Much more emphasis is now placed upon industrial and social history in higher institutions than formerly, and much more attention is given to them in the writing of history. The lower schools have not yet adjusted themselves to the new conception.

At the same time we are considering the children more carefully than ever before. Psychology and child-study have turned our attention in that direction, and have taught us that the children can make their own only such knowledge as their experience helps them to interpret. Their interests are in present life, and the past appeals to them in just so far as they can find themselves in it, with their activities, their thoughts, and their feelings.

They are living intensely in the things of the present, and their environment is putting very interesting questions to them. The history that connects with these questions becomes theirs. All the rest is mere information. Now, information is not in itself of very great importance. It is the use which we make of information that gives it its value. It is not knowledge, but the application of knowledge, that gives power. The problems of the children are as serious to them as ours are to us. To find these problems and help them to solve them in the light of the experiences of others is the teacher's task. These problems are rarely political ones, not even in the highest grades, nor chiefly in the high school. The children are not required to take a part in the affairs of the state and nation. They are interested in social life, and in occupations in which they themselves are taking a part, or in those with which they come into direct contact. A knowledge of past social and industrial conditions related to their experiences should help them to understand the life about them and to act their part in that life.

The weakness of the old system lies in the fact that the teacher gave the tasks to the children and the children worked without any impulse from within. They learned lessons set from the outside. It is evident that we all learn most easily when we ourselves need the knowledge that we are striving to gain. Many a boy finds it impossible to master mathematics at the dictation of the teacher, but, when out in business, acquires that same mathematics without difficulty. The little children have learned much before they come to school. They have learned because the things about them put questions to them. They have inquiring minds, and are continually saying, "Why?" The answers to these questions are their introduction to science and history. The race built up the arts of civilization before the formal school was invented; for the school is a comparatively modern institution. It was the necessities of life that led man to exploit his environment, to experiment with materials, and to work out processes. The school that separates study from life, from experience, is artificial in its methods. It is usable knowledge that keeps the school in natural methods of study.

Much of our history is based upon the occupations of the school. When the children are themselves making anything, they are interested in the work of other people in the same directions and in the history of that industry or art. Creative work is the center of the course of study for the younger children, and often the point of departure for the older grades. But as the children gain in power, their study of history is gradually differentiated from the occupations and the other studies. Still, even in the high school specialization should not be carried so far that the relationships of study and experience are forgotten.

The children of the primary grades find their problems chiefly in the home. They are interested in what people are doing, in action. They like to share in the occupations of others, and they dramatize in their play these occupations. At home they make playhouses, cook and serve meals, and dress dolls. These things that they do put questions to them — questions that are rarely answered in the home, at least in such a way as to give the child added power over his own experience. In school the occupations may be so organized that they form the natural entrance into the field of knowledge in science and history.

The interests of the children in the middle grades take in the larger social group, the neighborhood — here the city — with the occupations of the people, their trade and commerce, and our public works. Pioneer life is very close to the sympathies of the children, and we have in this country an abundance of material for it both in our local history and in that of earlier colonies.

Our history from the time of the Revolution has heretofore been written almost entirely from the political standpoint. Our textbooks tell of the rise and development of political parties, of states' rights versus national sovereignty, of office-holders, and of war. With these political questions the children have no vital sympathy. But there is an industrial history of the period that is very attractive to them. Our people have pioneered their way across the continent, developing the resources of the soil, and this industrial conquest underlies our political history. This story has not yet been written for the children in any degree of fulness; but, when it is, there will be a new charm in the study of American his-

tory in our elementary schools. We are accustomed to think of our history as dull and uninteresting as compared with that of other countries, but I have found the "evolution of the frontier" as fascinating to children as the age of chivalry.

With children of the highest grades political history may play a more important part, and the relation of our country with other countries may be more definitely shown. The point of contact is often to be found in current events. The power of the child to interpret and apply what he learns tells us how far to go in any one direction.

It is the application of all our work that is, after all, the important thing. We cannot expect children to go to school eight years in the elementary grades, and four years in the secondary school, never making any use of what they learn, and then to go out into the world and become actively interested in the public good. The habit of putting thought into action must be cultivated. Thought and action should go together throughout our school course; for the power to serve is the test of the value of an education.

HISTORY IN THE FIRST GRADE

ELSIE A. WYGANT

The work of the first year in the beginnings of history would be expressed better by the term "social occupations," as it is in no sense that systematic record of past events to which the term "history" is usually applied. The work is from the standpoint of industry, and its background is the immediate social environment.

We feel that this environment is a most complex thing, and that the unthinking acceptance of it by children leads to sophistication and lack of appreciation. Therefore we have chosen one element from it, the house, to see its evolution and the relation of its producers to society. As a clue to the mystery one might choose food or clothing, or any one of the necessities of man; but, because in our experience house-making gives greater oppor-

tunity for the children's imitative activities, and because the finished product, a playhouse, is so essentially fitted to the desires of a six-year-old, we have chosen this phase.

The question of modern food-getting, with its source in the farm, and the activities which this suggests, is very alluring. But to the child in Chicago, who has had only summer glimpses of a farm, or worse, gets his conceptions of farm life from single-day field trips, the work cannot carry the real spirit of the workers. Nor can his crude attempts to work out a process be enlarged and vitalized by sufficient comparison with the way in which skilled workmen do the actual work.

On the other hand, the work of house-making and furnishing is going on about city children all the time. They come in contact at every turn with those industries which include architecture, house-building, floor-covering, wall-papering and decoration, drapery, and furniture-making.

For several years we have made individual playhouses. Each child constructed his own house in the manual-training room and furnished it completely. This method had the great advantage of giving each child free choice in design, and when the playhouse was completed, it was his to dispose of as he would. This year we decided to co-operate in the making of one house. This decision largely grew out of the conviction that so permanent a thing as a playhouse should be more sightly than any we had ever been able to secure through individual effort. An object that is so long in the making and is used as a toy so long afterward should be of sufficient beauty to serve as an element in the children's growth in taste.

The first of the year, through pictures and buildings, different types of architecture were shown the children — Greek, colonial, and old English being emphasized. At Beverly Hills two houses of the old English type were seen, and this style was chosen for our playhouse. Mrs. William M. R. French made the drawings and plans for the outside of the house in most completely workmanlike manner.

During the fall quarter the history time was spent in choosing the kind of house and in considering the labor involved in the

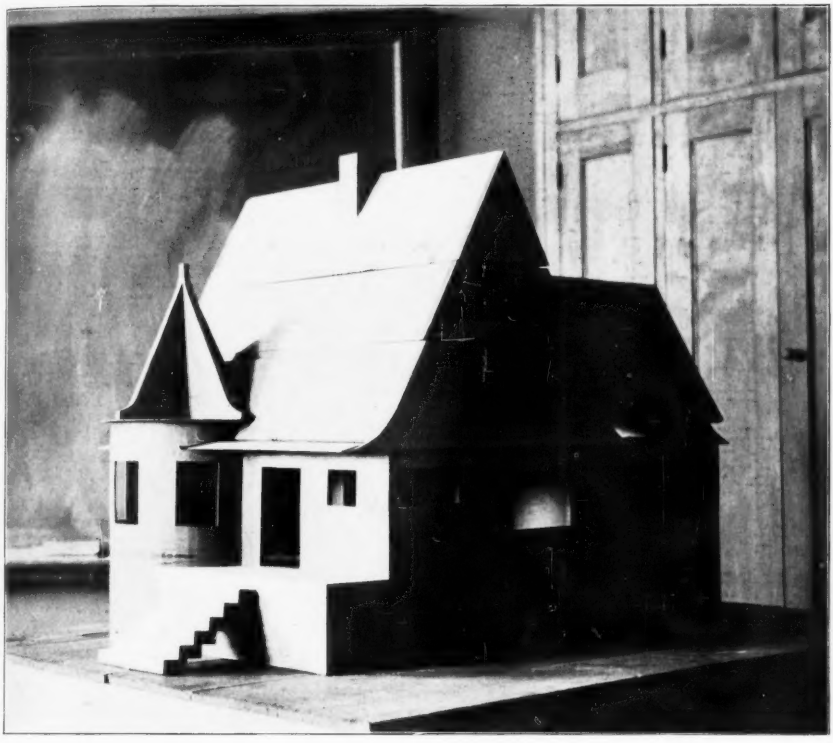
making of houses. The children counted twenty-nine classes of laborers who work upon a house directly. When the more indirect forms of labor, such as lumbering, quarrying, stone-cutting, transportation, etc., were traced out, their idea of the interdependence of the workman was widened. When this was enlarged by the idea of the exchange of commodities, in that the builder, for instance, needs food and clothing and recreation, the children were fascinated by the labyrinth. They enjoyed very much the story of "The Old Woman and Her Sixpence" told in this connection.

For the sake of contrast, we turned from this complexity and division of labor in modern shelter to primitive dwellings. The children were told of the tree-men and cave-dwellers, and delighted in discussing how they obtained their necessities. Because of the greater amount of material available, and the children's greater familiarity with the North American Indians, we planned out the possibilities of their life more in detail. We built an Indian village on the sand-table, making all things as nearly as we could as we imagined the Indians must have done without our tools. To find how the poles were cut for wigwams, how the skin was fastened for the cover, and many other details, we spent a morning in the Indian section in the Field Museum.

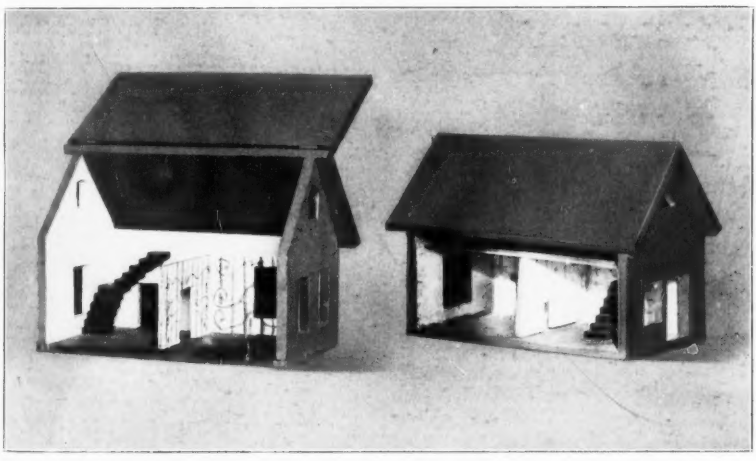
The children of the second grade this winter are studying Eskimo life, and they have made models and written stories for the first grade concerning Eskimo house-making.

The first grade is hearing stories of a tropical land, and will plan and make a suitable shelter for these conditions. So the idea of shelter as growing out of conditions and environment is building up more or less clearly as the individual child is more or less philosophic and analytic in his turn of mind.

The house we are building is made of Ralston Food boxes. The east and west ends of the main part of the house are hinged so as to swing back to allow for work and play in the house. In these boxes the children make the door and windows, and fit the partitions. The stucco effect they plan to make by using sand paper, and the open timbers are made of ¼-inch wood, the design for which the children have themselves worked out. The base-



GROUP PLAY HOUSE—FIRST GRADE



INDIVIDUAL PLAYHOUSES—FIRST GRADE

ment of bowlders is made of pebbles collected at the lake-shore. The roof is to be made of the corrugated paper, such as bottles are wrapped in, and this will be painted red. The children have planned the interior arrangement of rooms, thus determining the number and arrangement of windows.

In order to make the house movable, it had to be put upon a platform, and this the children have made somewhat larger than the house, and the surrounding space they plan to sod and plant for a garden.

The decoration and furnishing of the house offer continued opportunities for the application of design, and this phase of the art work centers upon the use of design for rugs, draperies, wall paper, tiles, leaded glass, and open timbers. The floor space is sufficient so that each child can design and make a complete rug, but in the wall paper, tiles, and so forth, a small group works on a design, and the most pleasing result is chosen. A stencil is made from this design, and thus it can be applied more accurately.

In the making of the rugs for the floor the children follow out the process, know something of the character and source of the possible materials with which they work, see good examples of various kinds of rugs, and visit a place where they can see the work being skilfully done. Such visits force a comparison between their crude results and the finished product of the skilled worker. So, it is hoped, they grow in taste and appreciation, and in respect for work and worker.

Among the children's occupations are also cooking and gardening, and in connection with these they are studying farm life for some of their lessons in science.

Now that the work is nearly completed it seems only fair to add a word in regard to making one house instead of individual houses.

A fifth-grade boy was seen at work this year repairing a playhouse which he had made when in the first grade and had given to his little sister. It had been a plaything sufficiently treasured to be worth mending five years after it had been made.

Another boy, in the third grade, came running into the school during a heavy rain, begging to be allowed to take another boy

and go to secure his playhouse, which had been taken from him two years ago and which he had discovered in a back yard not far from school. No arguments as to rain, or that possibly the playhouse was not his, were of any avail. He went, got the house, proved his ownership, and is now putting it in order after school in the manual-training room.

These evidences of the personal value which the children place upon their work, and the continued pleasure which the houses have afforded, are strong arguments for individual ownership. At the same time, they emphasize the necessity for houses which are beautiful. Therefore another year the children will be given the opportunity to make the individual houses, striving constantly to get good proportions and a pleasing outline, but sufficiently simple so that each child may plan and carry out a complete piece of work.

HISTORY IN THE SECOND GRADE

ELSABETH PORT

The children come to their second year of work in school still new enough in the world to view with interest many of the everyday activities that have come to be a matter of course to us. They are also beginning to wonder and inquire into the beginnings of these complex processes. These two facts, together with their growing love for discovery and experiment, have determined the two branches of work, social and historical, which, it is hoped, will illumine each other.

In their first year the children had done cooking and gardening, and had had the subject of food and its source, the farm, as one of their great centers of work. In the fall of this year they worked again on the subject, this time with a view to finding out chiefly the history of food after leaving the farm. At the same time, in order to give more meaning to our work by contrast and also to get at fundamental processes, we worked out some of the primitive ways of procuring and preparing food. However, it is impossible to do the cooking and play at hunting without getting

somewhat into other primitive occupations. And the subject is so large and so interesting to children that the time was all too short.

The children, fresh from contemplation of South Water Street and its abundance, were asked what they would do for food if they were left on an uninhabited island. This, of course, was comparatively easy, and they brought from home fruit, nuts, oysters in the shell, and water-cress, in order to have a feast of the things that could be found and eaten with no further preparation.

When this island of theirs was wooded and the forests filled with wild beasts, we had the conditions of early man. The physical conditions, however hard to realize, are easy in comparison with the attempt of the children to strip themselves in imagination of the knowledge that civilization brings. This I believe that they can do only to a very limited extent. They are, however, fertile in suggestion. They worked with great vigor on a diminutive pitfall, digging with pieces of slate and broken shells. They made formidable weapons by binding stones to sticks with strips of leather, and they chipped flint by the half-hour in the vain hope of getting a creditable spearhead.

When it came to the making of fires, they worked with even greater eagerness. They rubbed sticks until their arms ached, they got from flint infinitesimal sparks seen in the dark, and then regretfully and with a dawning respect for our very forefathers came to the conclusion that matches were necessary if we ever wanted to cook food. Even with matches it was not always easy to get a good fire, debarred as we were from using paper or prepared wood.

When successful fire-making was accomplished, the children had a series of outdoor cooking lessons. They roasted potatoes and chestnuts, they broiled bits of meat on green sticks, they baked eggs in clay and roasted smelts, they boiled water with hot stones, and so cooked eggs and chipped beef.

If time had permitted, the children could with profit have worked out some of the other changes brought about through the control of fire. The making of brush huts, for example, large enough to get really into, calls forth much ingenuity and hard work. Many of the incidents in the *Story of Ab,* which was used

constantly for historical setting and picturesque background, would have made good bases for work. The children's interest in the story never flagged, and Ab became a very real person to them. On the sand-table they made the surroundings of his cave and the cave itself. The making of the river was our geography, and the siphoning off of the water, our science for the time.

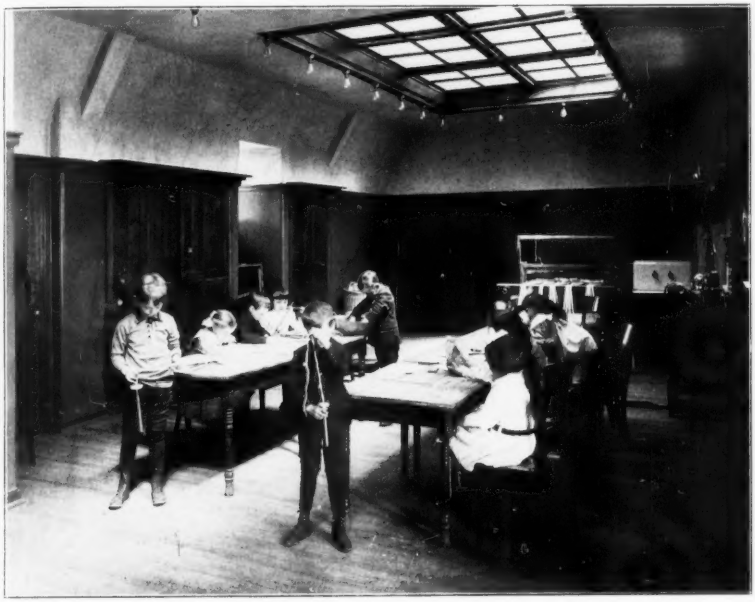
During the winter quarter we took clothing as our starting-point. We observed and discussed the relative merits of the various materials — cotton, wool, silk, and furs. The extreme cold and quantities of snow caused us to linger on the people who use furs for clothing. Here, again, it was impossible to confine ourselves solely to the subject of covering, when the whole life of the Eskimos is so full of interest.

Happily for us, the snow at that time was covered with an icy crust and in just the right condition for making igloos. The children cut blocks of snow and made some very good rounded huts out of doors. When these melted, they were ready and anxious to make others of clay blocks *to keep*. We are making two Eskimo scenes on the sand-tables — one, the winter, showing snow huts, ice-fishing, sledging, etc.; and the other, a summer one, with skin tent and kyak. The children have dressed small dolls with leggins, coats, and hoods. They have also modeled Eskimo figures and Arctic animals. They have, in the meanwhile, visited the Field Museum and its excellent Eskimo exhibit.

The lamp proves a fascinating article to make and use. They had to mold it of clay as the nearest approach to stone. They next tried out some fat to get oil for burning. Then, with some florist's moss for wicking, the diminutive lamps burned for hours, to the children's unbounded enthusiasm and delight.

Last year we made some satisfactory little ice sleds. The children got the blocks of ice from a frozen pond in the opposite lot, and by means of hot iron rods melted them to the desired size and shape. One little boy was so delighted with his sled that he could not bear to think of its disappearance and kept it safely in the home refrigerator for some days.

In their textile work the children have been working with wool, tracing its history from farm to clothing, and going through



Second Grade Children in the Textile Room

Third Grade Children Melting Metals in Furnaces Made by Themselves

the primitive processes of carding, washing, spinning, dyeing, and weaving. In connection with this work we take the stage of shepherd life. The Bible story of Abraham is the foundation for this work. We construct in the sand-table the low, rolling, grassy hills as the scene of the shepherd's wandering life. Wells and tents are made, sheep and camels are modeled in clay, cakes of meal are made like Sarah's, and some of the most dramatic scenes are played.

Later we make a desert scene, with an oasis for a wandering Arab tribe. Camels with their traveling packs are added, and in various ways a picture is constructed of this exceedingly picturesque people. The children also try primitive ways of making butter and cheese.

Through all these occupations the endeavor is to give the children a small beginning of appreciation of the simple bed-rock processes and their wide-spreading development.

HISTORY IN THE THIRD GRADE

GUDRUN THORNE-THOMSEN

GENERAL REMARKS

The work in history in the primary grades is a study of types of society in various environments. Some of these types are: the farmer, the hunter, the shepherd. The principal topics in this study have been: shelter, means of getting food and clothing, which include occupations and industries, means for defense, social customs, games, etc. Side by side with the consideration of these topics, which constitute the historic aspect of the subject, the environments in which these types of society were found has been given some attention; this is the geographic aspect of the subject. Forms of shelter, industries, and modes of living in a primitive society are very largely the result of certain external conditions: climate, topographic forms, and soil. In order, therefore, to understand the peculiarities and stage of development of a certain type of society, a study of these external con-

ditions is necessary. The factors which make Eskimo society different from Indian society, and the farmer's life different from that of the shepherd, are largely geographical. In one case we have an arctic climate, with absence of soil and vegetation; in the other case, a temperate climate, with extensive prairies; in one case, valley and river, with fertile soil; in the other, forests, with an abundance of game. To sum it up: History in these grades deals with types of primitive society; geography, with an analysis of various environments, which have surrounded man at different stages of his development.

The reasons why such types of society as the shepherd, farmer, and hunter are taken up in the first and second grades are obvious. The forms of community life on which they are based are extremely simple in all their phases, socially, industrially, and politically. The farmer's or shepherd's life has many analogies in the child's own life; it is therefore easily comprehended, and arouses his interest and sympathy. What the hunter does in a primitive society is closely akin to the things that the child himself would like to do, and very often can do. The problems and ideas which claim the attention of the hunter seem familiar and worth considering to the child in the first and second grades.

As before stated, the social, industrial, and political organization of these types of society are extremely simple. Their energies are spent mainly in obtaining the necessaries of life directly from nature. As there is no trade, there are no luxuries. They form self-sustaining communities, with no intercourse with the outside. Means of transportation and communication are undeveloped, and travel and exploration find no encouragement. It is easy to understand that the study of such a society appeals to the children in these grades. Their problems and occupations are similar to those of the society which they are studying.

In the history work of the third grade we advance one step. From the simple, self-sustaining communities of the hunter, farmer, and shepherd, the child is led to consider a type of society where man no longer is entirely dependent upon nature through his own efforts, but where he obtains the necessaries of life, and very soon some of its luxuries, through the intercourse and interchange with other people.

Such a study involves, of course, such topics as: beginning of trade, of exploration, and of travel; development of means of transportation and of a diversity of arts; expansion of industrial, social, and political life. As concrete illustrations of such a society, some phases of Greek and Norse history have been selected for study in the third grade.

In this connection the children are brought face to face with geographical conditions, more definite and different from those that they have studied before. In both Greece and Scandinavia the country is mountainous, with a scarcity of soil. The coast is cut by deep inlets and is skirted by innumerable islands. The relation of these geographical facts to the life of the people is easily understood by the children. The study of this typical environment, with its results in industries and modes of life, furnishes material for the work in geography for the third grade.

No attempt has been made to have the children reason out in a logical order the various steps and stages which led from one type of society to another, from a farming to a trading community. Such a philosophical study would be far beyond the powers of comprehension and the interest of the children. The material has not been selected because it marks the beginning of proper historical study, nor because it emphasizes historical sequence. The aim has been rather to furnish the children with historical material that is simple, but not too simple; material which will bring into relief their own problems and ideals; material which will delight the child and at the same time stimulate to right action. It makes no difference to the child in the third grade whether the stories of heroism, of adventure, and of simple life are taken from the beginning of history or from the present, from this country or from foreign countries; only this is necessary: they must satisfy the child's cravings for life in the forms that he can recognize and act upon. For this purpose other chapters of history might have furnished suitable material. One reason, however, for selecting Greek and Norse life is, that the material is easily accessible and embodied in great literary masterpieces. In the sagas of the Norse and in Homer, we find a literature which adequately describes the age and which charms the children by the grandeur and simplicity of its style.

DETAILS OF OUTLINE

Geography of Scandinavia and of Greece.— The aim will be to bring the children into close, personal contact with mountain and coast scenery by the aid of pictures, stereopticon views, descriptions, sand-modeling, and reading. Such features as mountains, valleys, islands, fjords, bays, and harbors should become living realities to the children, as much so as features of their own home environment. These features in their climatic setting will be studied in relation to the life of the old Greeks and the Norse, in determining industries and modes of living. The study of the formation of such topographic forms as mountains and valleys — that is, physiographic processes — will not be touched upon in this grade.

Geographic conditions which encouraged early navigation and commerce: islands, harbors, scarcity of soil, etc.

Resulting industries and occupations.

Development of trade. How trade was carried on; means of transportation by land and by water. Colonization by the Greeks; discoveries and expansion of geographical knowledge.

The Vikings; where living; their houses, weapons, etc. Discovery of Iceland, Greenland, and America (Vinland) by the Norse. For comparison, stories will be told of modern explorers, as Nansen, Livingstone, Stanley; their equipment and aims as compared with those of the ancient explorers. The story of Columbus will be told as embodying the spirit and aims of exploration.

Study of Greek and Norse boats; comparison. Models of boats and vessels from the most primitive craft up to our modern vessel: the ancient vessel, the Norse boat, the galley, the boats of Columbus.

Collect pictures and have them mounted on charts so as to show the evolution of the boat. Discuss the slowness and inconvenience of these various crafts. How to find the location of a place on the ocean, by the stars, by the sun.

Social conditions of the people; home life, classes of people, games and sports, warfare and warlike conditions.

Standards of measurement, currency, use of metals. Ideals of the time and religious beliefs.

ILLUSTRATION OF METHOD

For the study of the Norsemen, the sagas of King Harold and Björn Farmand are told and read to the children. For the study of the Greek, the *Odyssey* in Palmer's translation, will be read and told. From the reading and discussion of these pieces of literature and of related stories, the children will work out the points enumerated above (see "Details of Outlines").

The play element has been emphasized strongly in this work. The children imagine themselves Norsemen and Greeks; dramatize the stories; play trader, viking captain, skald, and king.

When one group studying the Norsemen discussed how they best could tell their story to the Greek group, they planned the following scheme: to represent on a large sand-table the country surrounding a viking's home; to make trees with which to cover the mountain sides, and also animals, which live in the forest; to construct houses, ships, and men, and place these in the country made on the sand-pan. The children divided themselves into groups in order to work out this plan, each group having its chairman to direct the work and thereby give it unity. After this construction work was finished, the children embodied their knowledge of the life of a trader, in a story which they themselves composed. This story was absolutely original and composed by the group as a whole.

From the child's standpoint, a need arose for metal arrow-points, spear-points, battle-axes, money, weights, etc. This was the teacher's opportunity to have the children realize the difficulties which primitive man experienced in dealing with a new material, metal. In this as in all his constructive work, the child is confronted with his own particular problem and is left to use his own initiative in experimentation. After having discussed present uses of metals and where found, the children experimented in order to find out what metals they might use for their purposes. After trying to smelt different metals, the children decided upon lead and tin. The children plan and build small furnaces in which to smelt their metals, make molds, and carry on the whole process of molding in lead and tin.

A system of currency has been invented by the children, the

value of a man (slave), an ox, and a sheep being represented by coins bearing the stamp of a man, or the head of an ox or a sheep.

When the children dramatize Greek or Norse life, they use, of course, the money, weights, scales, and armor which they themselves have made.

In studying how to furnish their Greek or Norse houses, or how to make their pottery, armor, and utensils, the children have tried to express Greek and Norse ideas and ideals in the designs. On the pottery, for instance, pictures from mythology appear — fierce heads of dragons on the Northmen's cups, while smiling suns and rippling waves adorn the Greek cups.

It is believed that the many-sidedness of the work here presented will call forth the varied powers in each child; that it will give wide scope for his imagination and for expression in simple but beautiful language as well as in the arts; that the child will find numberless opportunities to develop initiative through invention and constructive work; and that the social aspects of the subject-matter itself, and of the methods used in carrying it out, will train the child in social service.

HISTORY IN THE FOURTH GRADE

GERTRUDE VAN HOESEN

In the first three grades the children have studied some of the conditions that bring people together in a city. In the fourth grade we trace the growth and development of our own city. The study of local history gives a feeling of the reality of the past that can be secured in no other way, and the habit of thinking of actual relations gained by work upon the immediate environment can be carried over to the history of other regions. In local history we have all the necessary conditions for forming clear and definite images. Events have occurred in familiar places, and the children may visit historic sites. They may collect information from old inhabitants, and often study relics in the museums and art galleries. It is easy to trace the effects of the topography of the region upon its history.

The approach to the study of Chicago is through the consideration of the French explorers and the early settlers of the Northwest. This gives an opportunity to enlarge the ideas gained in the third grade in the study of the early Phœnicians, Greeks, Norsemen, and other explorers.

The work of the year is taken up as follows:

The early French explorers: their motives as compared with the explorers previously considered; religion, adventure, acquisition of territory; the industries naturally developed on the St. Lawrence River—fishing, fur-trading, trapping.

The story of Marquette and Joliet, with the geography necessary to understand the conditions. The children are told and read the story of the lives of these two men from childhood; their life on the St. Lawrence, then later in search of the Mississippi. Marquette's winter in Chicago in a rude hut is especially interesting, as it is thought that he was the first white man to live on the site of the present city. Joliet's report of their explorations in Canada.

The story of La Salle in his attempt to establish a chain of forts in the country south of the lakes, and to control the fur trade, gives the children a vivid picture of the character of men at that time. It is considered as follows: La Salle's youth and voyage to America; his grant of La Chine; Fort Frontenac; the building of the "Griffin" at Niagara; the trip to Lake Michigan; the probable fate of the vessel; the fort at St. Joseph; in the Illinois country; building of Fort Crèvecœur; the adventures of Tonty; the destruction of the fort; La Salle's trip down the Mississippi; his discovery of the mouth; building of Fort St. Louis; La Salle's return to France; his return to America via the Gulf of Mexico in order to found a colony; failure to find the mouth of the Mississippi; building of fort in Texas; his attempt to return to Fort St. Louis overland; assassination of La Salle; devotion of Tonty.

The development of trading-posts throughout the country claimed by France: stories of the life there; Kaskaskia; Detroit; Vincennes; Fort Dearborn.

The children next trace the evolution of the city from a fort and trading-post to the form which they see about them. In the

study of Fort Dearborn there is the development of the trading-post, the building of the fort, the coming of pioneers, and then the growth of a village around the fort. This study includes the consideration of life without many of the conveniences of modern civilization. By means of stories the children learn of the need for paved streets, of the first road-making, the ferry across the river, the first bridges, the earliest houses, and the modes of traveling by land and water to reach the settlement.

Finally the children see in imagination the frontier village become a thriving city with a need for city government and for public works. It is with the functions of government that the child comes in contact, and it is these that he studies. In this discussion he is brought face to face with simple forms of civic organization, so that the mayor and the council become a more definite part of his social environment.

In the evolution of the city the problems especially considered are: the development of the streets from dirt roads to the asphalt boulevards; the water-supply from the spring and well to the water-system of the present; the illumination of the city from the torch to the electric lights; the drainage system, including sewerage and the Drainage Canal; the development of transportation from the canoe and prairie schooner to the almost perfectly equipped train and vessel system of today; the bridges across our river; the development of a simple form of government, with its mayor, police force, fire companies, life-saving station, and park system.

After this group of children finished the story of Fort Dearborn, they constructed a model quickly in clay. It is not worth the time for them to do it in more lasting material, as the problems in construction are the same that have been met often in previous grades.

During the spring term the work consists of the topics in civics above noted, with the exception of the water system which formed a part of the fall study. It was taken up as follows: discussion of ways of getting water, including our own water system. The children knew nothing about the water system of the city, except the fact that water may be obtained by turning the faucet, and that the pumping stations had something to do with it. We

went to the pumping station nearest the school, each child carrying the following questions which were suggested by the class: How many men are employed at this station? How many hours does each man work daily? What are the different kinds of work necessary to run this station? What kind of fuel is used? How much is used in one day? What is the cost of the fuel per ton? What are the wages of the men? Each child was responsible for the answer to these questions and for knowing about the machinery. The following paper was written by one of the children before the discussion began:

"This station was built in 1875. There are 5 pumping stations in the city. This station is connected with the crib by two tunnels. One is 7 feet in diameter $\times$ 3¼ miles. The other is 5 feet $\times$ 3¼ miles. There are 6 engines. 80 lbs. of steam are required for each engine. 60,000,000 gal. of water are pumped each day. This station pumps the water used from 39th Street to the city limits and from State Street to the lake. There are 56 men working there. Each man works 8 hours a day. They use Illinois soft coal. 55 tons are used every day. The cost is $2.37 a ton."

This information was obtained individually during the visit to the pumping station. In the discussion we decided to find out, as far as possible, the cost of supporting it for one year. The following report is copied from one child's work:

$2.37	cost of one ton of coal.
55	
1185	
1185	
$130.35	cost of coal for one day
365	
65175	
78210	
39105	
$47,577.75	cost of coal for 1 year.
53,106.00	wages of men for 1 year
$100,683.75	coal and wages for 1 year

There is no more fascinating story in the history of our city than the building of the first crib and the first tunnel. The class considered the question of purifying the lake water, and performed experiments in filtering and distilling, proving the merits of each. The apparatus used in both cases was simple home-made apparatus, such as the children could individually construct.

HISTORY IN THE FIFTH GRADE

CARRIE M. PIERCE

Colonial history is chosen for the fifth grade because it illustrates the dependence of man upon a definite geographic region, and shows the development of a simple industrial life, with none of the complications growing out of our modern factory system. The pioneers were thrown back into primitive conditions, and had to win their own way in material things. Different groups of people were obliged to meet their necessities according to different conditions of soil and climate. These conditions are sufficiently simple for the children to understand. They give rise to problems which the children can make their own. In this study, as in that of primitive history in the primary grades, we trace man's conquest over nature, but at a more advanced stage of his progress. The energy, industry, and patience of the sturdy colonists make this a period especially useful in forming ideals of character.

In method we follow the story of individuals, because children's interests at this age are largely in persons, and in persons in action; but each story is so taught as to show the industrial conditions of a people, their household life, and the effects of their occupations upon social life and government.

Weaving is given especial prominence in the hand-work of this grade, and the children find in making their own designs a motive for the study of the household arts of colonial times. The children's own occupations, therefore, form, from one point of view, the center for their study. They also find in the continuation of

work in civics begun in the fourth grade another center, this from the conditions of their environment. They learn the means of protection in our city afforded by our fire department, police, and board of health, and such other functions of our city government as they can comprehend. This is used as a basis for understanding the work of the colonial governments.

The work of the autumn quarter was the study of the Pilgrims. The children were asked where the people around them came from, and it was found that New England was an important source of the present population of Chicago. Many of the children had been to New England, and several had visited Plymouth itself and seen Plymouth Rock. After the story of the Pilgrims in England and Holland, and the coming of the "Mayflower," pictures of the country around Plymouth were shown, and the children discovered the reasons that led the Pilgrims to choose this place for their home. Plymouth harbor was modeled in sand, the "Mayflower" and Plymouth Rock were located, and the town was constructed on the sand-table, including Governor Bradford's house, the fort, the town brook, Leyden Street, Priscilla's home, and Burial Hill. The story continued with Governor Bradford's Journal as a basis, and the study of the first Thanksgiving feast gave especial interest to our own Thanksgiving Day celebration.

In the cooking lessons for the quarter, the children cooked dishes which the Pilgrims used. They ground corn in a stone mortar and cooked the meal. Baked beans, brown bread, hasty pudding, and cranberry jelly were also prepared. Just before the Thanksgiving recess the children prepared a luncheon to which they invited their parents. After the decision was made that the luncheon should be given, the question arose as to whether they should be Pilgrims entertaining their parents or Pilgrims entertaining Massasoit and his ninety braves. This involved much discussion, but finally the former idea prevailed. They dressed in Pilgrim costume, which led to a study of the dress of colonial times. The girls wore simple gowns of gray, with white kerchiefs and caps, while the boys wore full trousers, white collars and cuffs, and high colonial hats. Committees were chosen to arrange

and lay the tables, to have charge of certain dishes, to receive and serve the guests, and later to clear the things away.

In former years we have had as a culmination of this study the dramatic representation of the first Thanksgiving Day. The scenes have represented the preparation for the feast, the welcoming of the Indian guests to the feast by the governor, a drill of the Pilgrim army under Miles Standish, contests between the Indians and the whites, and one dinner of the three days of feasting.

Our study of the New England home included the houses and their furniture, the fireplace with its furnishings, the ways of preparing and serving meals, the spinning, dyeing, and weaving, and the making of candles and soap. The children have dyed and woven yarn into small articles from their own designs, and they are now working upon a colonial rug.

The occupations into which the Pilgrims could enter necessitated some knowledge of geography. As a preparation for the study of the Massachusetts Bay Colony, New England as an upland region was described, and pictures of typical landscapes were shown. Then followed the story of Endicott and Winthrop. The story of the rapid development of the colony led to further study of geography. The reason for the variety of products on a New England farm were shown. The children reasoned that the lack of any staple product for export caused great need for manufactures, and that the excellent water power made these possible. They learned that there were great forests for building ships and fine harbors for commerce; that fishing gave impulse to trade, and a variety of occupations developed. We traced very simply the effect of this variety of occupations upon the social life of the people; the small farms; the villages and towns; the schools; the town-meeting.

The class studied Longfellow's "Courtship of Miles Standish." The greater part of the poem was read aloud by the teacher, the children working upon the parts in which they had most interest.

In the study of Virginia in the winter quarter we began with the plantation, contrasting it with a New England farm. After describing the large farm, with its great fields of tobacco, the many laborers, the mansion house and many other buildings, the

river and the wharf, and the ship from England with its freight of manufactured articles, we inquired into the causes of the difference between the life here and the life in New England. The study of the Atlantic coastal plain gave us answers to our queries. Some experiments were tried in the making of such a plain. The children constructed a miniature plantation. We also studied the methods of cultivating tobacco, and compared the labor involved with that in growing corn. This gave some help in understanding the introduction of slave labor. The effects of slave labor were traced in the classes of society and the effects of the large plantation on the education of the people and their government.

The stories of the causes of the colony and the events connected with the history of its development were read with the class in connection with the other work.

For the spring quarter our work is the study of New York. The children read "Hans Brinker" to get a vivid picture of life in Holland, and the teacher told them the story of the siege of Leyden, which illustrates the character of the people. After they had read the story of Henry Hudson, maps were used to help them see the commercial importance of the location secured by the Dutch in America. As a gateway to the West, the Hudson River was of immediate value in their fur trade. Reading about the present commerce of the city also shows the importance of this location. (Carpenter's *Reader*). The Hudson may well be studied here as a type of a drowned river valley, and experiments may be made in the laboratory to show how such river valleys are formed.

The characteristics of the colony are studied and compared with those of New England and Virginia: occupations; classes of society; labor; household arts; education; government. A miniature city is being constructed on the sand-table, with houses built in clay. Painting and drawing of scenes in Old New York are also used.

Irving's "Rip Van Winkle," "Sleepy Hollow," and selections from the "Knickerbocker History," are read with the children to add to the interest in their study, and also for their literary value.

HISTORY IN THE SIXTH GRADE

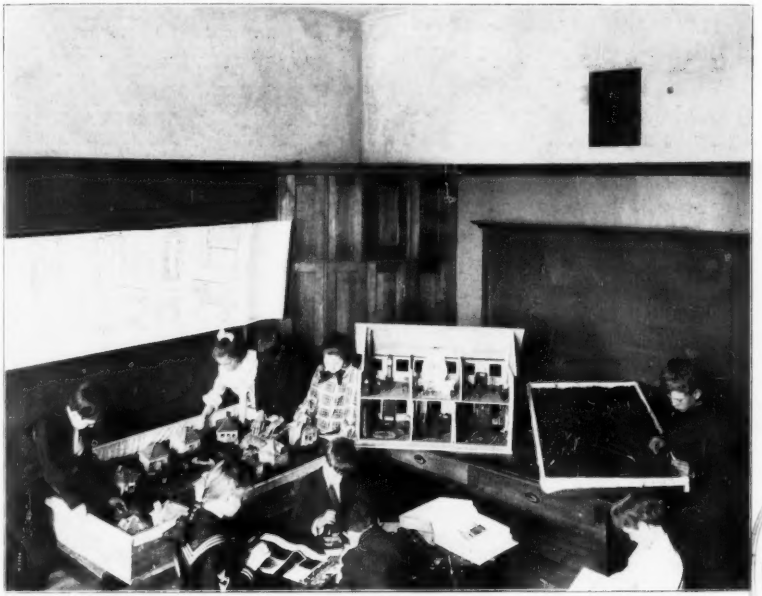
ANNAS HIGGINS

In this grade colonial history is extended to include the study of French colonial life, and to compare the French and the English in the New World. To account for the contrast and emphasize the difference in their ideas of government, it is well to examine the conditions in Europe out of which they arose. The climax is the coming together of the French and the English in America, the failure of the French, and the success of the English in keeping possession of the continent, and the struggle of the Revolution.

The class has studied the French in America, something of the conditions at home that led to their coming, the great fishing industries that grew up in this country, and the beginning of the commercial intercourse between America and the mother-country through the fishing and fur trade.

The children have learned something of the physical geography of France, and of the industries springing from it; something, also, of the social and political life of the French people in the sixteenth, seventeenth, and eighteenth centuries; and they have touched all the conditions at home that influenced the new country. In this work they have brought in whatever the school or home library could contribute, as well as pictures which members of their families traveling abroad have collected. They have used their water-colors constantly, and have sought help from good pictures.

The work has called for a continual shifting of the center of study, from the new to the old country. In the New World they have followed Cartier in his voyages up the St. Lawrence, and his interesting contact with the Indians at Stadaconé and Hochelaga. Later they met Champlain, the young soldier full of the spirit of adventure, compelled to sit idle in Paris because the country was at peace for a few years. They have gone with him over the sea as a member of the band of traders led by De Monts, have recognized him as the real spirit of the band, have asked many times



COLONIAL HISTORY OF VIRGINIA—FIFTH GRADE

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SEVENTH GRADE

why he was not made *head* of the colony, and have rejoiced when some years later he really *leads* the expedition up the St. Lawrence.

They have worked on the Nova Scotia settlement with the keenest interest. They have found the characteristic of each man. They have admired Pontrincourt for his love of beauty, and have enjoyed the Bay and the "amphitheater of hills" with him. They have really a new friend in Lescarbot, and have found through him that an artist and student of the classics can bring real joy and life into a disheartened company of crude men such as were left to his care when the leaders of the colony went back to France and Champlain made one of his excursions to the south. They have loved old Memberton, the chief of the neighboring tribe, for his care of the French. They have been just as anxious as the old Indian that no enemy take them unawares. They questioned closely the right of the king to give the monopoly of the fur trade to De Monts, but severely, indeed, did they censure him when he revoked it, and caused the failure of the colony upon whose success they had determined. They stayed long enough with this colony after the revocation of its charter to see that it became the nucleus of French settlements along the Bay of Fundy.

The class followed the life of this colony in maps, pictures, and sand models. They built the habitations at St. Croix and Port Royal. They told many of the stories in their own way, and wrote several character sketches. One of the most interesting reproductions was the story of "L'Ordre de Bon Temps," or how they furnished their table with good things during the last winter at Port Royal.

They saw Champlain go back to France, but eagerly welcomed him when he came again to work out what he had planned five years before, to build a great fort and trading-post on the St. Lawrence. They studied the character of the country, the course of the river with him, and then built his habitation at the foot of the mountain. Here they studied the life of the trapper of whom Champlain, Père le Jeune, and others have left so many interesting sketches. They thus got a glimpse of the French

colonial life; they saw the priest and the nun at their work of converting and training the Indian, and building churches and schools; they saw the trader bargaining with the Indians from the North at the midsummer fair at Quebec, Montreal, or Three Rivers; they had an opportunity of comparing the government with that of the English colonies which they had studied. Parkman, and Bourinot's *Canada* have been used. Bourinot, Pratt, and Baldwin's *Discovery of the Northwest* have been helpful with their pictures. The class has seen Champlain strengthen his friendship with the Algonquins, that he might go unmolested on his way to the "Western Sea," by joining with them against the Iroquois, and has foreseen the result of this policy. In this way the class has followed the whole life of Champlain to his death at Quebec. Some songs have been written by the children to express their feeling for the spirit of the French pioneers, each group setting its own words to music.

In geography they have worked on the St. Lawrence Basin, of which they are making a model, and have enjoyed comparing their own maps with those of Champlain, whose maps — half map and half picture — have interested them greatly.

They next saw the French spread out into the Mississippi Valley, following Marquette and Joliet, La Salle and Tonty, and the others who claimed the great region for France. They have read the stories of these men in the fourth grade, and this time read Parkman, and some of the original letters and diaries as given in *The Jesuit Relations,* and *Louisiana Historical Society Papers.* They have visited the Chicago Historical Society rooms.

Their knowledge of the trading interests of the French in the North enables them to appreciate the cause of the trouble between the French and English in the Ohio Valley, and its result — the French and Indian War. Their work on the building of Quebec by Champlain gives them an interest in it as the great stronghold during the war, whose fall meant victory for the English. Emphasis is placed on the result of the war, and its effect in history.

This takes them into the life of the English colonists, which they are following, laying stress upon the industrial development

which leads to the Revolution. The social life is closely bound up with the industrial. They see the home, hand manufacture, and its growth into the factory system. Here the work which the class is doing in textiles gives zest to the history of manufacture in the colonies, and an appreciation of the advance in machinery. The newspapers of the times, some of which they have opportunity to consult, throw light upon the commercial life of the colonies, and upon the Navigation Acts. This work culminates in the Revolution, the Declaration of Independence, and the birth of the nation.

In civics, our plan involves the study of the work of the Civic Improvement Societies of Chicago and of the city of Athens as the type of a beautiful city. Some topics in Greek history seem especially desirable for work in this grade; for instance, the story of Marathon as a long-ago Bunker Hill, and the education and games of the Greeks. Two years ago the children made a series of tiles to illustrate Greek games. The story of the *Iliad* is used as a foundation for this study.

HISTORY IN THE SEVENTH GRADE

HARRY O. GILLETT

History considered as simply the record of past events has little place in the curriculum of the elementary school. Children live in the present, and, unless something is taken from the past to help the present, history is not fulfilling its whole function. It is not the study of men's conclusions about the meaning of the facts of history, or the "learning" of the moral lessons which men have gathered from history, that has any great influence on the children's lives. To be effective, the facts of history must become present, must be lived over again. The experiences of the former generation must become personal and real, the ways in which men have met difficulties and overcome obstacles must enter into present and vital thought, before their influence on the child can become very great. Nor is the temporary interest

which accompanies the telling of dramatic incidents of history of much educative value in itself, but rather the reflection upon those incidents, and perhaps their immediate use in the solution of present problems. An idle interest, a desire for entertainment and the gratification of that desire by the teacher, may make the recitation seem successful, but the absence of constructive thinking means no mental advancement.

The child's study of history is not that of already formed institutions, but of the formation of institutions continually being molded and modified to suit existing conditions. To the child, history is dynamic. His view of history should be a picture of the ways in which men live together, not at present or in the past, but at any time. We can study life of the past better than life of the present, because the life around us is too complex. Institutions are being created and modified now just as much as in the past, but we are too near to them to see them as wholes. The elements tending to their formation are too numerous and too much entangled for us to see their relative value as elements. We cannot see the results of this and that plan. We cannot attain a height from which to get a bird's-eye view of the whole with the important elements standing out and the minor elements in the background. Time has made the picture more simple for us by making dim the unimportant, and we use that simplified picture to gain a knowledge of life, the interrelations of its parts, and how it meets conditions such as are with us today. We learn to see more clearly the meaning of the present as a part in the evolution of society.

"When history is conceived as dynamic, as moving, its economic and industrial aspects are emphasized. These are but technical terms which express the problem with which humanity is unceasingly engaged; how to live, how to master and use nature so as to make it tributary to the enrichment of human life."[1]

It is the economic side of American history which forms the basis of the work in the seventh-grade course in the University Elementary School. The work is introduced by a study of

[1] John Dewey, *Elementary School Record*, November, 1900.

frontier conditions before the Revolution. The place of least stability, the place where tendencies are forming, the place where motives are most simple and where society is least hampered by tradition, is the frontier. There the elements of life are so simple and the heroic element, which is so strong in children of eleven and twelve years, is so pronounced that children can easily realize that life, and to a large extent re-live it. In a sense, history starts anew in the backwoods, and, from this as a starting-point, we may work out so far as is thought desirable the increasingly complex institutions up to the present time. On the frontier social and economic situations may be seen to grow into political problems, and the relations between them may be traced as they become more and more complex.

This first picture of frontier conditions is broadened by a study of the life of Daniel Boone as a type of the early trans-Alleghany explorer and settler. The class is encouraged to read a good biography of Boone, such as that recently written by Thwaites. Parts of the narrative are read in class. The lesson assigned may be to choose such passages as best show some phase of the life of the times. In the study of the immigration which followed the early explorations of Kentucky, the opportunity is taken to show the geographical side of history in the difficulties which the travelers met in crossing the mountains, and the considerations of the topography, the soil, and the waterways which had to be taken into account in the choosing of a site for a home. As more and more people are compelled to live together in the frontier forts and stockades, the need of some form of government makes itself felt. The development of the idea of government in the Wautauga settlement is worked out. We find the source-books of history of special value in this kind of work, for a page from a diary or an extract from a letter written in the quaint style of the times adds very much to the reality of the picture. But the purpose of these readings is not entertainment; it is to help in the formation of a picture of the life of the times, and, to be of much value, such must be the purpose in the child's mind. Often the mental picture of the life of the times is to find expression in an original story based upon historical incidents of that time, and

the necessity for a correct historical background gives the child a real purpose in reading from the source-books. The children also report going to their grandparents for information at first-hand about pioneer life. Even with children of this age (eleven and twelve) dramatization may play an important part in the teaching of history, if not indulged in too freely.

In the sixth grade the children study the Revolution; but in the seventh grade some time is given to the work of George Rogers Clark and his band of backwoods soldiers. While the political importance of Clark's work is not disregarded, the main purpose in our study is to show the spirit of the times, and at the cost of how much effort in the past we are now enjoying the natural advantages of the "Northwest Territory." If it seems that too much time is given to this part of our history, we must remember that the child grows slowly, and we cannot get the strong growth we wish by forcing. The wisdom of building a strong foundation of these fundamentals of history is seen later in the year.

The slow settlement of Ohio made possible by the Ordinance of 1787 is next worked out, with some attention given to the "land company" methods, and the constant trouble from the Indians. The great question of better means of transportation and communication was paramount, and sheds some light on the causes of the unsettled condition of the country in the early days of the republic. The demand of Kentucky and Ohio for the right to navigate the Mississippi, one of the great highways of the time, influenced the purchase of Louisiana. It is at about this time that we gather together what has been learned about transportation and the routes and conditions of travel from the seaboard to the interior, paying special attention again to the geographical factors involved. Some of the great questions of the day as to the duties of the national government in making internal improvements are discussed, and their bearing on present-day problems is noted. The culmination of the industrial and commercial situation in the War of 1812, the rise of a national feeling as the different sections became more in sympathy with each other as improved means of communication and transporta-

tion allowed better commercial relations to exist between them, the increase of canals, and the rise and growth of steamboats and steam railroads, form the next topics for study.

Considerable time is given to the study of the territorial expansion of the country, beginning with the Louisiana Purchase and the explorations of Lewis and Clark to determine the nature of the new possessions. It may be stated here that these explorations are taken up in some detail, as showing the geographical conditions of the country at that time, and what obstacles had to be met by the intending settler. The effect of improved transportation and communication upon the organization and development of Louisiana Territory forms an important topic.

The questions relating to the admission of Missouri to statehood crystallized the feeling about slavery, and show us something of the industrial and economic conditions in the South. The acquisition of Texas and the California region, and the influence of the discovery of gold in California, form the next topic. The determination of the northwest boundary line and the limits of the Oregon country rounded out our dominion in the West. The building of a transcontinental railroad and its influence upon the development of the Pacific coast region are then studied.

The industrial and social tension between the North and the South finally resulted in the Civil War, which was followed by a great industrial revolution, the effects of which we see daily.

The rest of the time (about eight weeks) is given to a topical study of the industrial development of the country, considered historically and often geographically, including such topics as the cotton industry, the factory system, mines and mining, the iron and steel industry, the activity of the general government in making internal improvements, the various national bureaus for the development of the country, local and national government, etc. This study is aided by excursions to great industrial plants and public buildings, such as the Illinois Steel Plant, the McCormick Harvester Works, the oil refineries at Whiting, a grain elevator, the city hall, and other public buildings in the city. The social and political changes due to changing economic conditions are followed as closely as the child shows he is capable of understanding them.

Expression in the history takes the form of written papers and oral reports, imaginative drawings and paintings, clay-modeling and work in textiles. Stories, reports, and papers are written regularly, and are examined both as to accuracy of fact and correctness of English. In one sense, the work in English grammar is based on these written papers.

The child's realization of industrial progress is aided by direct study of certain industries. In the spring quarter the growth of the textile industry is worked out, experimentally as far as possible, as the hand-work of the class. In the winter the study of electricity and the making of various pieces of electrical apparatus, as well as the experiments on the transmission of heat as applied to the cooking, increase the interest which the class has for all kinds of industrial progress.

In this course in American history the main purpose is to stimulate the children to gain a genuine, intelligent interest in the growth of their country — an interest which does not die at the close of the lesson or at the end of a series of lessons. In one sense, it is a course in sociology, for the facts are gathered to understand better how people and groups of people learn to live together, and how they react to their environment. It must not be assumed that facts are subordinated, for an accurate knowledge of facts must be acquired before conditions can be understood, and facts which are learned for a conscious purpose are more likely to be remembered than facts which are studied out of relation to each other, so far as the child is concerned, even though the immediate interest may be keen. Helping in the organization of the problem is the work of the teacher; it is by the working out of the problem that the child educates himself.

HISTORY IN THE EIGHTH GRADE

KATHARINE M. STILWELL

The topics chosen for the year's study are the European history immediately preceding the discovery of America, the growth of the knowledge of geography, feudalism and chivalry, the guild

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system of labor, and the arts and inventions of the Middle Ages. Other historic phases might very properly be selected. But it is believed that life in the Middle Ages is peculiarly fitting, furnishing, as it does, pictures of service and heroism which appeal strongly to pupils of the average age of this class.

The work centers about the widening of the world's horizon through the Renaissance. It interests the eighth-grade pupil because it is the background of the American history, already studied, and because of the relations that may be shown to the social and governmental conditions of the present. A study of the spirit of the arts of the Middle Ages helps the child to see some of the conditions that surround the modern laborer, and may show the need for a revival of handicraft, with its accompanying freedom in work that made possible the art of this period.

The children's own work in printing serves as a foundation for understanding the artistic value of the early work in this craft. It seems desirable that they should gain some conception of the art of book-making, including illumination and binding; but our conditions have not so far been such as to favor much practical work outside of printing. We have in former years found the press of very great social value to the school.

Drawing and painting and clay-modeling have been freely used as a means of expression of the life of the period.

The year began with a study of the period of discovery and the growth of geography. From a study of what the ancients knew, as shown by the maps of Herodotus, Pomponius Mela, and Ptolemy, the class became interested to know who the ancients were. The teacher sketched an outline of Greek history; the class read *The City of the Seven Hills,* and then studied about the ancient Germans. This included enough of their movements — the fall of the Western Empire, the growth of the church, the rise of the Franks, and the trouble with the Mohammedans — to explain the cause of the Crusades, and to account for the origin of feudal government. Following the Crusades, and the story of Venice, its location, its early history, and its rise to commercial importance, the class read *The Merchant of Venice* and witnessed Mansfield's presentation of the play. They then studied feudalism and chivalry according to the following outline:

1. *Growth of feudalism.*— The weakness of kings and the need of protection.

2. *The feudal estate.*— The location of the castle. Description of an eleventh-century castle, showing moat, palisades, drawbridges, portcullises, towers, donjons, etc. An attack and the means of defense. The lord and his vassals. The ceremony of homage.

3. *The life of the castle.*— The hall, the banquet, the wandering minstrel. Tapestry-making. Falconry. The chase. Chivalry. The page, the squire, the knight. The jurists.

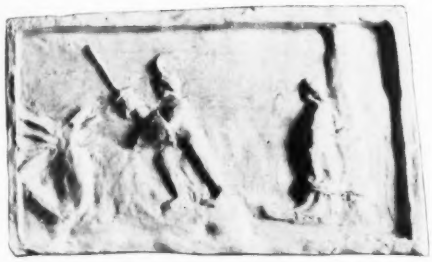
4. *The life of the village.*— Land-tenure. Plan of the village showing the manor lands — the domain, the pasture, and the fields. Relation of serf to lord. Method of cultivating land. The peasant's house, furniture, food, and clothing.

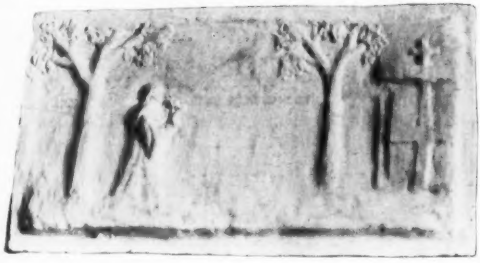
5. *The abbey as a fief.*— (Copy of the charter of Melrose Abbey.) What the life of the monastery was like. Its church, its cloisters, its work-shops. The wall, the moat, and the outlying fields. The dress and occupations of the monk.

The class acquired some knowledge of the topics outlined by reading the various school histories (Myers, Robinson, Harding), by examining pictures and collections of armor, and by reports from those members of the class who have visited Europe. In school they read selections from Tennyson — "Gareth and Lynette," "Sir Galahad," and "The Lady of Shalott" — and selections from Scott. At home they read *Ivanhoe, The Boys' King Arthur,* Pyle's *Story of King Arthur,* Bulfinch's *Age of Chivalry,* Young's *Little Duke,* and other books bearing on the topic.

The work of individual pupils made available to the class much of the necessary information. Different topics for investigation were assigned to the various pupils and reports presented in writing. Each was conscious that the class had need of his work, and hence each had a motive for writing.

The reviewing of books was introduced as an aid to making a list of books for supplementary reading. Each pupil wrote a review which was used to determine whether the book in question should be added to the list or not. This subject has presented many opportunities for expression in both painting and drawing.





TYPICAL SCENES IN THE MIDDLE AGES—EIGHTH GRADE

Many pictures were drawn to illustrate the costumes of the Middle Ages.

While studying the life in the castle the class examined the illuminated manuscripts in the Newberry Library and in the Art Institute. They read *Friar Jerome and His Beautiful Book,* and made some fairly successful attempts at illumination. An illuminated motto is the united work of several pupils, but each child has illuminated and framed a text for himself.

The class investigated modern methods of book-making, and visited the studio of Miss Stiles, who kindly showed them her work, and illustrated and explained to them the entire process of making a book by hand.

Finally an opportunity was given to express through modeling the results of this work. Each pupil attempted to show in clay his idea of the spirit of the period. The accompanying photographs show some of their efforts.

All the work done has been with constant reference to the present, and the comparisons already made have prepared the pupils for a better understanding of the broader and more vital topics which follow.

The general subject for the remainder of the year is the guild system of labor contrasted with our modern factory system — art. It is presented through the following topics:

1. *The towns of the Middle Ages.*— Their relations to feudalism. Growth of commerce and manufactures. Position of cities in the line of trade. Rise of free towns and cities. Privileges of townsmen — training for self-government.

2. *Life of the town.*— The walls and gates. Appearance of streets and houses. The churches. The town hall. Grouping of trades. Shops. Apprentices. Guilds. Trade laws. Stories of handicraftsmen.

3. *Study of Florence and Nuremberg* — as typical expressions of thirteenth-century art. The cathedrals of Europe as illustrating the growth of Gothic architecture.

4. *Results of the guild system of labor.*— How this compares with our factory system in (1) the desire to do good work; (2) the love of art; (3) the feeling of social responsibility.

SEED AND SOIL

AGNES W. O'BRIEN
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At many meetings of teachers called for the purpose of considering the teaching of English, much attention is given to the subject of literature. The interest of speakers and of those who take part in the discussions centers in the question: "What literary work shall we select for this or that age or grade?" One tells us that we should devote a large measure of time, even in the elementary schools, to the study of Shakespeare, of *Hamlet* and *Macbeth*, and to the study of the Greek classics; another, that we would better set aside Shakespeare in favor of Longfellow, Bryant, and Whittier; again, one advises us to discard Longfellow, Bryant, and Whittier, assuring us that there is little in those authors of value or interest to the child; that the time devoted to their works would be used more advantageously in the reading and study of stories depicting noble deeds and inculcating the belief that, in the long or the short, virtue is rewarded. Is the teacher who presents *Sir Launfal* to his eighth-grade class making an unwise selection? Or is his a most happy choice? Shall we eliminate the *Sir Roger de Coverley Papers* and Burke on *Conciliation* from the high-school curriculum, or shall we continue the teaching of them, content in the feeling of fruitful effort? The dictum of this speaker contrasts sharply with the dictums heard at other conferences. The enthusiastic teacher, passing through his Tennyson, or Dickens, or Bret Harte age, and seeing freedom for himself in the dignified, never-ending "Battle of the Literates" — renewed, fought out along different lines, and quite settled at every meeting — may elect to present to his class his beloved author who may not have appeared on the battlefields. A fortunate class! A teacher so inspired furnishes an open sesame to the heart, to the spirit of the master — the

secret of the divine things that he possesses is more than likely to be betrayed to, and to become a divine heritage of, every child in the class. The teacher who desires to follow the mandates of his superiors, conscientiously, scrupulously, even to the letter, is bewildered, hampered, rendered inefficient.

So many considerations affect the choice of literature for school children as well as for the individual outside of school: the age, training, culture, temperament of the teacher; the spirit of the class, taken collectively and individually; its spiritual needs, particularly of its dominating members; the atmosphere, setting, background of the home and the school — these and many other influences bear on the choice. Differences of opinion as to the best choice of reading-matter are inevitable. One assumes a grave responsibility who says of literature that has held back the heavy bars of Time: "This shall be read, that shall not be read." The good resulting from the reading of worthy literature can never be entirely lost; as we sow, so shall we reap intellectually as morally. But are we not confining our attention too exclusively to the seed itself? Of itself the seed may be perfect, but if the soil is not scientifically, perseveringly, tenderly prepared for its reception, what avails the perfection?

The teacher who directs with wise suggestion the reading of a class of geniuses, of Franklins or Websters, may feel that he has done his full duty: a flash of the inner light illuminates the reader, the echo of a kindred soul is heard, understood, and the truth expressed by the writer is his. But the genius is rare. The thoughtful, earnest, industrious, responsible child is rare. The average class is made up of children who are curious, not inquiring; who are satisfied in the doing of the minimum of work required, fairly well; who are more or less indifferent to their own interests, and who are unwilling to believe that the superfluous labor counts for all that is best in life. Each class has its quota of so-called "bright" pupils, confident, touching ever so lightly the throbbing pulse of some master's offering, and then sweeping breezily on, scintillating with superficiality. For them, verily, is "truth hid in great depths" and "the way to seek it doth not appear," for they are blinded by their own brilliancy.

For several years past the reading-matter put into the hands of the Chicago public-school children from the first to the twelfth grades has been of good quality, notwithstanding that fact, the children are today afflicted with a poverty of language; their expression, oral and written, is inadequate and feeble. The poverty of language is accompanied by poverty of thought. We may fondly imagine that the boy who stands to recite, hesitates, jerks out a word or two, and then gazes into space, does so because he is bursting with ideas which his voice refuses to give out; so we sympathetically help him along, sometimes giving him the idea we think is his, and then helping him express it; we may even more fondly imagine that the girl who runs six sentences together does so because a world of ideas lies bare before her, and she is so intent on the living thoughts that she deigns not to consider capital or period; that the one who, after grandiloquently declaring that Goldsmith's diction in his "Deserted Village" is unsurpassed, marvelous, etc. (she is quite sure — hasn't she memorized the statement from the infallible "Introductory Remarks"?), and directly afterward characterizes Rome's Nero as an "awful mean king," and sums the character of her teasing playmate as an "awful mean boy" — we may deceive ourselves into thinking that they are expressing ideas; but they are merely saying or writing words. We were disappointed yesterday because the child's attempt to translate into his own diction a passage read and re-read in class was a miserable failure; we are tearful today because child after child, looking helplessly surprised when the stranger formed in his own way the question that we are sure the children could answer, failed in recitation; tomorrow, the office boy, the stenographer, the bookkeeper, drives his employer to despair, and we hear the groan of the business man. Yet for years the young people have consumed a great amount of time reading and re-reading masterly literature.

Are we not calling for expert workmanship before putting into the hands of the apprentice the tools by which he may equip himself for skilful work? Until we realize that English, not an art, not a science, must be presented scientifically to the students,

the reading of the greatest literature will be more or less of a failure, because it will not perform its functions. It will fail to develop in the child the power to discriminate between the worthy and the unworthy; the power to form after examination an opinion of his own concerning a production; the power to understand its relations to other subjects in literature and life; the power to appreciate the record of the best that has been thought and felt by man; lastly, the power of expressing in simple, clear language his own ideas, if he is an originator; if not, to express and apply the ideas of others which he has learned and understands.

We give much time to written exercises in all subjects, believing that the child learns to write correctly by constant practice. True, if the practice is itself of the right kind. It may be wise to cut the time allotted to written work and devote a large part of it to oral exercise. A child benefits himself by written expression only when he writes of that in which he is interested; when he is so full of his subject that the writing is a delight; when his inner joy in the doing permeates and irradiates from every line. Then, as the artist sees to it that his masterpiece is framed and placed to advantage, so will the boy or girl put forth effort to set up in worthy dress the precious offspring of his heart and brain. He will seek the written symbols that express his ideas; he will begin to realize how insignificant is the relationship between the written and spoken signs of the same idea, and how necessary that he equip himself with the tools required in the doing of his work; he will unconsciously work for clearness, force, unity; for he knows so well what he is about that he is not willing to be misunderstood. Not the quantity of the writing, but the quality, the life, the spirit, the light that dominate it.

A ten- or twelve-minute composition, brimful of the writer's interest, thoughtfully written, is of more value to the student than are hours of indifferent, desultory writing on subjects in which he is but half instructed. Even in the matter of punctuation great help may be given by oral work; so great an assistance is the oral element in the presenting of this subject that I believe that, if so helped, by the time the child reaches eighth grade,

punctuation may be handled as a familiar, long-used tool, easily, practically, effectively.

It would be well to eliminate from the spelling lists of all grades dozens of words that are practically never misspelled, and to set aside uncommon words and those outside the child's experience, until he is equipped with the list of about twelve hundred everyday words — the words that all should know, the words that are misspelled from first to twelfth grades. This list should be most carefully selected, discriminating as to the form of the word to be included. To illustrate, "begin" is rarely written incorrectly, "beginning" is commonly misspelled; "speech" and "speaking," "occur" and "occurred," give trouble. There is no reason why a normal child should not be prepared to use this list in writing with as little effort, and as correctly, as he uses them in speech.

If in the teaching of technical grammar in the seventh and eighth grades our purpose is to induce the child to compile a list of grammatical facts to enable him to answer what we call nice questions in grammar, particularly examination questions; or, if we think he will express himself correctly either in speech or writing because of his knowledge of such data, we are blundering. But if we teach him enough of grammatical terminology and classification to enable him to work out the logical relations of the various parts of a sentence or a group of sentences placed before him, that he may thereby interpret more clearly the exact meaning of the writer, provided that we do not trammel him by giving him the work as written exercise, we are serving the student well. We are putting into his hands one of the best possible means of developing his analytical power, without which he cannot understand the exact meaning of many of the ordinary communications of his fellow-men, not to speak of appreciating the great literature.

We conduct our reading lessons nowadays in the cold-blooded, intellectual manner, quite worthy of teachers of overcultured women. Why not allow the child to read Patrick Henry's "Address," Antony's "Oration," "Battle of Balaklava," as he feels them? To be sure, he will shout and rant more or less; to

be sure, our nerves may be more or less racked; but the reader's joy will be exceeded only by that of his childish auditors. He may not know the exact meaning of some of the phrases that he shouts, but the spirit will not be missing — the spirit of Cæsar, or Rienzi, or Clay will go marching bravely on, thrilling speaker and listener. We have exaggerated the evils of this kind of work; we have a generation of youthful cynics who elevate their eyebrows and smile when some daring spirit attempts to read as he loves to. Why not devote considerable time in the middle elementary grades particularly to dramatizations?

Because I have been asked to speak particularly of the work in word-analysis as it is handled by the class now under my charge, I shall do no more than to mention the great value of the study of the thought-connectives of English speech; the wonderful power the student acquires from the careful study of synonyms and antonyms, through which he may reach the very heart of the language — the Anglo-Saxon element; and to that study which I place first, far above every other exercise that appears in the classroom — the intensive, daily study of short literary selections. None but those who have had the joyful experience of watching the tender young soul unfold itself to the light, awakened by the delicate touch of a master-spirit, can possibly realize what this work means to the child, morally as well as intellectually. Of this part of my daily work I speak with deep gratitude and reverence.

In September the class took note of about ten of the more common prefixes and a like number of suffixes. After they had learned the meanings of the prefixes and suffixes, one of the easier stems from the Latin, in the different forms in which it appears in English words, was given to the children. They were instructed in the building of words by the adjusting of stems and prefixes and suffixes. They were impressed with the facts that they could not build haphazard, and that it would be necessary to consult their dictionaries to verify the word and the various forms they desired to offer. At the end of the week the pupils had collected about one hundred and fifty words. The words were then written on the blackboards and carefully inspected by

the entire class, and corrections of many kinds were made. The words were then copied into blank-books, from which they were analyzed and discussed at considerable length during the following week. The words were used in sentences, and care was taken to point out instances of words deviating from their literal meaning. In many cases the children gave reasons as to the changes, occasionally making an excellent point. They quickly acquired the "dictionary habit," and they watched each other so closely that he must needs be a daring child who attempted to guess his way into the work, the work, therefore, tending to make the student accurate as well as observant. A list of from twenty to forty of the more representative words from the stem, including those that were likely to be most useful to them as part of their vocabularies, was then printed on a large cardboard and placed before the class. There are so many words with each stem that it is quite impossible to go over all of them frequently. We have by means of the printed cards, the words for which the students themselves supply, managed to keep in touch with every stem studied during the year. It was necessary to devote more than a week to such stems as "graph" and "logos," so that we have been able to study about twenty stems during the present school year. The stress of the work is laid, not upon the building itself, though the pupils' interest in that phase of the work is quite absorbing, but rather upon the use of the words in sentences, their exact meaning, and their variations of meanings, and upon the comparing and contrasting of words by careful analysis. Each week we added to our lists of prefixes and suffixes, including many Greek prefixes. The children now have a ready, usable knowledge of the prefixes and suffixes of the language, and their vocabularies are greatly enriched. The children themselves realize the value of the work; it is ever a pleasure to them.

TEACHING AND STUDY

DR. THEODORE B. NOSS
Principal of the State Normal School, California, Pa.

In what order should these school exercises occur, and what should be the nature of each? Should the teacher be in fact what he is in name, a teacher of lessons, or merely a hearer of lessons learned from some other source? Should the textbook be in fact what it is in name, a text, or should it be the whole sermon? Should the textbook supplement the teacher, or the teacher the textbook? In short, should a new lesson be studied by the pupil before it is taught, or after? Common usage says, before. Does not good pedagogy say, after?

Of course, if the teacher does not know his subject and does not know how to teach, he should assign his lessons, in advance, in a good textbook, and stick close to the book — the closer the better. But it is unfortunate that the necessities of the poor teacher should set the pace and fix a habit for all teachers. The common practice of assigning advance lessons to be studied in a book and then recited to the teacher never sprang from the strength of teachers, but from their weakness. In Germany, for example, where for two or three generations teachers as a rule have been well prepared, no such custom is in vogue. Wherever the teaching art is seen at its best, in primary school or university, or any grade between, the teacher teaches the lessons; but wherever teaching becomes mechanized and the teacher a degenerate, he takes to the book as a duck to the water. He can't fly much, but he can swim all day. He can't teach well, but he can hear lessons "recited" and make timely suggestions and corrections.

"Hearing" lessons is hardly legitimate business for one who holds a license to teach. A license to hear would seem to be all that he is fairly entitled to. The very word "recite," when applied to such subjects as arithmetic, grammar, history, and the

like, provokes the wrath of the "born" teacher, for the better the pupil recites, the less he knows. To recite gems of literature is a beautiful exercise, but to recite grammar and geography is abominable. If a pupil is caught at it, he should be rebuked for false pretense and contempt for his teacher.

Yet teachers may be found who do not frown upon, but encourage, such practices. A fourteen-year-old girl attending a city public school told me recently that she had memorized the first half of her textbook in United States history; that her teacher expected the class to recite the language of the book word for word; and that she had one day been told to sit down because she used the words "ships sailed" where the book had it "'ships coasted." No such unwarranted liberties with the book could be permitted.

This teacher may have been more conscientious and consistent than most teachers in the use of the textbook method for the preparation of lessons, but is not the method itself fundamentally wrong? The teacher's place is not at the rear, but in the front. If a horse is a thoroughbred and every way worthy of the honor, he ought to be in advance of the cart.

SOME OBJECTIONS TO THIS ORDER

Some plausible reasons have been found for having pupils study their lessons before the teacher teaches them.

1. It is claimed that the pupil gains more self-reliance by learning his lesson from a book without the help of the teacher. It is not made quite clear, however, what virtue the book possesses over a good teacher for inculcating the noble quality of self-reliance. Neither is it obvious that a pupil is more likely to be inspired with self-reliance by a teacher who depends upon the book than by one who exemplifies this virtue in his own teaching.

The pupil needs all the help he can get from both teacher and book, but he should have the teacher first. If he does not need the teacher at the point of greatest difficulty and danger, viz., in attacking the new lesson, why should he have him at all?

2. Objection is made that it takes too much time to have the class study the new lesson with the teacher, and that it is better

for the class to learn all they can from the book, and then let the teacher make an inventory of what each one has discovered, correct his errors and supply what is lacking.

This is so plausible in theory and so convenient in practice that no one is likely to object to it except a teacher. He objects rather strenuously, if he has an artistic temperament and is disposed to magnify his office. He thinks the element of inspiration is not sufficiently provided for in the pupil's self-study of the new lesson in a book. He is conceited enough to believe that he has a better chance than the book to arouse interest, clarify vision, and direct the efforts of the pupil. He argues that ordinary book-study lacks any good, definite aim, and encourages several bad aims, such as class standing, working for answers, for grades, etc. In contrast with this, he would make his method one of thought-study. He would have the lesson analyzed and digested, rather than memorized. He would not measure progress by pages, but rather by interests, clear knowledge, skill in doing things. He would teach every subject in its direct bearing on the life of the pupil, and would lay stress on all that affects personality and molds character. His method might not seem so speedy, but it is sure, and the results are lasting. I once conversed with an old man — nearly ninety years of age — Baron de Guimps, the last surviving pupil of Pestalozzi. In defending his great teacher against the charge, made by some of his contemporaries, that he was unsystematic and did not make sufficient use of repetition and review, he said: "What Pestalozzi taught once he never needed to repeat."

3. A further objection is made that if the teacher teaches the new lesson, there is nothing left for the pupil to do. But such is not the case. Teaching is not a mere recital of facts. That is more the nature of the book method. There is little choice between a teacher that tells everything and a book that does so. Teaching is a process that requires the active co-operation of both teacher and pupil.

Teaching is causing another to learn. The pupil co-works with the teacher in the discovery of truth. The teacher has really taught the lesson only when the pupil has learned it. After the

lesson has been taught by the teacher, it is carefully reviewed in the book or books by the pupil, and is then reproduced in outline in an orderly way, in neat and correct written form, for the teacher. Much new matter may also be added in the way of illustrations and examples. In all this, however, there need be no groping or wasting of time in study hours.

4. Some teachers have a fear that the teaching of the advance lesson by the teacher makes learning too easy. If this fear is well grounded, we are on the verge of a great discovery — an easier method of learning. What man of practical turn of mind would not take his children, and go himself, to a teacher who would make it easier to learn? Who first conceived the idea that in education the shorter road must be avoided, and the longer one chosen, for the sake of mental discipline? And yet, what we contend for is not that learning should be made easy, but that it should be made fruitful. Make it harder, if you choose, but make it pay. Children like to work hard, if there is sufficient motive; but work without motive never makes a scholar or artist, only a slave.

No wise parent would exempt his son from effort, but to have his effort rewarded by learning twice or thrice as much would be an unmixed blessing. Anything that increases friction and causes delay and worry, in lesson preparation, is in itself a bane, not a blessing. There is so much to learn, and school life is so short that the easiest method of learning is quite hard enough. The old prejudice against short-cuts in education, such as the use of algebra to help the arithmetic, the educational use of pictures, etc., has given way somewhat, and there is a growing conviction that the simplest, clearest, and quickest method of teaching is the one to be chosen. Is it not curious that this should ever have been doubted?

THE TEACHING OF THE ADVANCE LESSON

It is here contended that the new lesson should regularly be taught in the classroom before it is assigned for study; that the new subject should first come to the mind of the pupil through the mind of the teacher; that the pupil's study of a lesson is made

more intelligent, interesting, and fruitful by the preview which the teacher gives; and that nothing short of this can strictly be called teaching. Among the reasons that might be given for this claim are the following:

1. The pupil needs help in the study of the new lesson, if he ever needs it. The ability to learn, unaided, new lessons is not an innate nor an early endowment, but is, in fact, one of the latest and best products of school life. Doubtless many adult students in secondary schools waste half of their time in study hours because of groping and guessing. The mental habits acquired by such work and worry are the opposite of what we seek. The logical place and the psychological moment for the teaching of the new lesson are when the pupil first comes to it. The true teacher, like the good shepherd, goes before his flock. If there are dangers and difficulties, he must be the first to see them. If we hire a guide at all, we want him when we first go through the woods.

The task of reciting a lesson is an easy matter, if one knows the lesson. The teacher's aid could better be spared here than in the study of the lesson.

2. Lessons learned entirely from the book are apt to tax the memory unduly to the neglect of more important powers. In teaching new subject-matter the teacher can cultivate the habits of close attention, correct reasoning, and good expression. It is easier to teach a new lesson successfully than an old one.

If the lesson is alike new to all, the needs and interests of all are much the same, but such is not the case when pupils of varying abilities have studied the new lesson with various degrees of thoroughness. They are now unfitted rather than prepared to recite the lesson together. What is new to some is old to others. The recitation is more likely to beget indifference than interest. Little room is left for interests that are spontaneous and natural, interests that relate to the subject itself; and the exercise usually degenerates into a sort of cram and absorption of mind with artificial values.

It is an evidence of the robust health and sanity of the minds of children that so many of them survive the deadening processes of the so-called "recitation."

3. First impressions are most vivid and lasting. In the teaching of a lesson a teacher should not lose his case by a bad beginning. If he opens up the new subject himself, he can direct and train the minds of his pupils according to his will and skill, but to insure success all conditions should be favorable. What could be more harmful than to have a class roaming over the new lesson, in advance, like a herd of cattle turned into a new pasture field? Not only should the teacher not drive his class ahead of himself in this unskilful way, but he should try to prevent this anticipation of his work.

4. A teacher's work consists chiefly in teaching truth or correcting errors. It is mainly the former when he teaches each new lesson himself; it is mainly the latter when lessons are merely assigned in a book. Good teaching is not the art of correcting mistakes, but of preventing them. It is only the habit of accuracy that pupils need to form. Many teachers seem to become enamored of mistakes, and to live in an atmosphere of false syntax, false spelling, false pronunciation, false everything. They know all that the pupil should not know. The teacher's time should not be devoted to extricating the pupil from the bog of error; he should keep him from falling in. The slime of error cannot be so cleaned off that it does not leave some stain. The far-sighted teacher has about the same theory for mistakes that a farmer has for Canada thistles.

No wise teacher will make it easy for the pupil to miss the road. Very often, when the pupil makes mistakes, the teacher is to blame. There is some justification for a custom, said to exist in China, according to which, when a man commits a crime, his teacher is beheaded.

Teaching by preventing errors is more economical of time and effort, and more pedagogically sane, than the process of correcting mistakes. Mistakes are costly. A celebrated Greek music teacher charged double tuition to those who had taken lessons from another teacher — one-half for correcting mistakes. The maxim of Jean Paul Richter is a good one: "Look only on the best, and the good will soon appear."

A gifted teacher is an artist as truly as is a painter or an

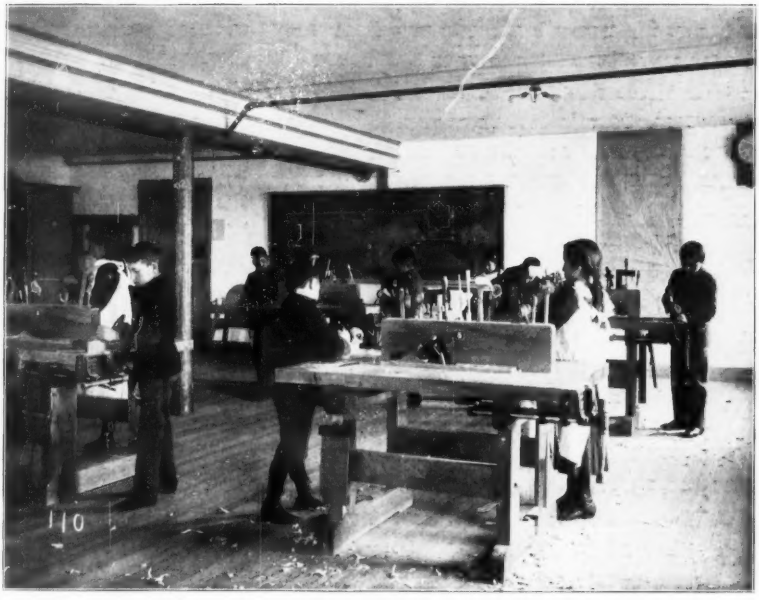
orator. He also makes pictures that should be imperishable treasures on memory's walls. Anything that spoils his pictures is repugnant to him. Unguided study is sure to spoil them. The teacher who turns a class loose to roam unguided over a new lesson is like the thriftless farmer who cares not whether his seed wheat is pure or mixed. The engineers who have tunneled the Alps, and the architects who have built the great cathedrals, would all have failed if they had used the slovenly art of the teacher who devotes his time and skill to correcting errors instead of teaching truth. All high art, including teaching, loves precision. Mistakes are costly, and the teacher should plan to prevent them. "An ounce of prevention is worth a pound of cure."

5. The tendency in a textbook preparation of lessons is to narrow the scope of school work to a few subjects formally treated in the book, while things perhaps of greater importance to the pupil, to the home, and to the community are completely ignored. School should not be merely a knowledge shop where facts, mostly unrelated and uninteresting, are dispensed, but a place that adds to the enjoyments and increases the usefulness of all connected with the school. The pastimes of the home, conversation, story-telling, games, conundrums, etc., should not be so foreign to the routine of the school. Music, art, and current literature should have attention. The school should create interest in things worth knowing and impart skill in things worth doing. There is need of a larger use of knowledge and of less indiscriminate cramming, and for this the teacher's art is required. Most pupils need training in the art of seeing and doing the right things. It is harder for them to use their knowledge than to get it. Their time has been so occupied with a kind of sordid and selfish devouring of facts that their minds are closed to the best things in life. They need to realize that mere knowledge-stuffing is vulgar; that to have a great quantity of facts or money for which one has no use is not very laudable; and that, as some one has said, the maxim, "Learn all you can," is about as wise as "Eat all you can." It is the mental training which the pupil gets rather than the knowledge which he accumulates that is of greatest importance.

Real success depends chiefly on the method of study. This should emphasize quality rather than quantity. Unifying thoughts should be made prominent, minor matters secondary, and unrelating things, as a rule, omitted.

All this work of selection and relative stress should be turned over, not to the immature pupil, but to the skilful and experienced teacher. The textbook is all right in its place, and is indispensable, but it is no substitute for a good teacher. As a rule, textbooks should be much smaller in size, and teachers much larger in gifts and capacities. When we reach the golden age of pedagogy, the textbook will be a book of texts (outlines, problems, etc.), and the teacher will be a man or woman who teaches rather than hears lessons.

CARLISLE INDIAN SCHOOL



WOOD-WORKING

WORK IN THE CARLISLE INDIAN SCHOOL

ANNE H. STEWART
Teacher of Manual Training

Considering the purpose of the education of the Indian — which is to make him self-supporting as speedily as possible — the opportunities and environment at Carlisle seem favorable. Effort is made to arouse in the Indian youth interest and ambition in life, and the courage and ability to compete in civilized industries.

One half-day is spent in school, the other half in the various shops and workrooms. The boys learn the trades, and the girls are taught laundry work and sewing. Boys are given a choice of the trade they wish to learn, and are placed in the shops under competent instructors. The trades represented in the school are carpentry, wagonmaking, blacksmithing, harnessmaking, printing, tailoring, painting, tinsmithing, and shoemaking. The sewing for over nine hundred students is done by the girls. Beginners are placed in the darning class. From there they are advanced to the mending-room, where they are taught to do repairing and plain sewing. Each class does its own cutting. The dresses for the four hundred girls are made by the pupils in the dressmaking class. During the finishing year special training is given in drafting and fitting. It is observed that Indian girls are especially skilful with the needle, as were their mothers before them. The girls also receive instruction in cooking.

A system of placing pupils out in families was conceived by the founder, General R. H. Pratt, and was adopted from the beginning. The girls work in the house, the boys in the field and shop. People thus receiving pupils from Carlisle must sign an agreement to send them to school a stated number of days, and to see that their habits are what they should be. Students employed received such remuneration as their services warrant. Two outing agents are employed by the school — one for the girls,

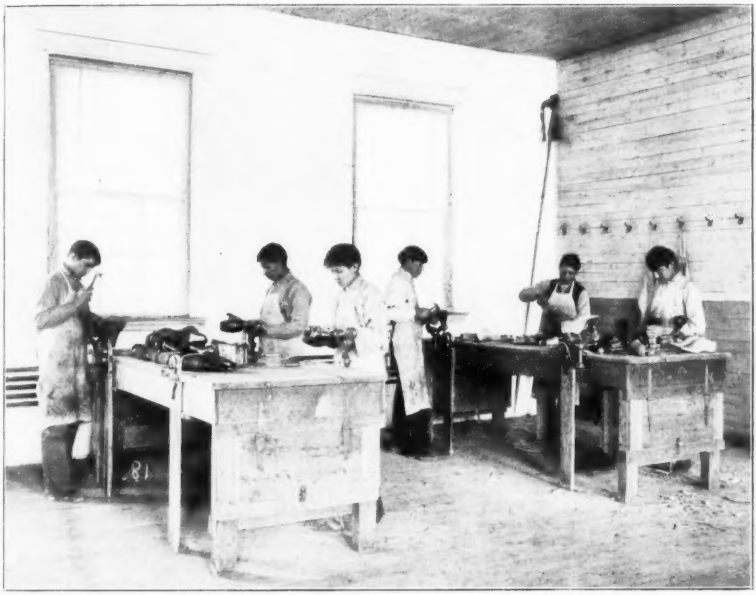
another for the boys. It is the duty of these agents to visit the children who are in the country, and to make report as to their progress and condition. The Indian youth, living thus in the home, learns English and civilized customs in a practical, natural way. This outing system has grown so that every summer seven or eight hundred pupils are sent where they gain a knowledge of how the white man lives and "earns his bread by the sweat of his brow." In the winter three or four hundred remain in the country and attend the public schools with white children. They must save one-half their earnings, so that many of them have a neat little sum to their credit when they return home.

The Indian child comes with his native inheritance — patience in execution, keenness of eye, and skill of finger. Results of the hand training of his ancestors are evident. Who can look upon the fine, intricate, and historic designs woven by the old Indian without a live appreciation of his thought, his skill, and his perseverance?

To one unfamiliar with conditions the average age of the children would seem high for their grade. At Carlisle there are but few under twelve years of age. The low-grade adults and the small children are taught separately through four grades. Boys under sixteen and the youngest girls receive two lessons each week in sloyd.

Although the work corresponds to that given in the public schools, conditions at Carlisle are unusual, and methods are adopted which seem best to meet the need. Sloyd work appeals very strongly to Indian children. First-grade pupils who can scarcely speak a word of English find it a means of expression; and, indeed, it seems that it is right here that the greatest growth and development resulting from manual training are apparent.

On account of work details, the sloyd classes are for the most part ungraded. The instruction must be entirely individual. The Indians are not nervous, nor are they impatient. Thus their temperament contributes to fineness of technique. This is also observed in the basketry, loom-weaving, and other hand-work given the younger classes. All this manual training is found to be of great value with these children. It not only awakens their



LEARNING TO MAKE SHOES

DRESS-MAKING ROOM

mental powers and sustains interest, but is an excellent factor in discipline.

In drawing they excel in nature work and design. Many show a fineness of feeling and appreciation of beauty of form, though their rendering of it is often mechanical in execution. They are painstaking students, anxious to please, and not in the least afraid to undertake a study or design for fear the results will be inadequate. In consequence, the results are often surprisingly good.

THE COLONEL FRANCIS W. PARKER MEMORIAL FUND

A committee, representing various educational interests, has been appointed to take steps toward raising funds for the purpose of securing a life-size bronze statue of Colonel Parker. It is proposed to place this in the new Chicago Normal School building, which is located at Normal Park.

Colonel Parker was the friend of the children as well as of the teachers, and, realizing this, the committee has issued a circular letter asking the teachers everywhere, who are interested, to take the matter up with their pupils. Thousands of teachers, the country over, can give good reasons from their own experience why this memorial is a fitting one, and many of these, where practicable, will be glad to interest their children in making some contribution toward the memorial fund. The committee feels that small contributions from school children representing the widespread influence of Colonel Parker's work will be peculiarly appropriate. The following is the text of the committee's letter and the names of the committee:

The Board of Education of the city of Chicago has erected a splendid building to be devoted to the training of teachers. This structure, a cut of which appears on the first page of this letter, stands on the spot once occupied by the Cook County Normal School. It was here that Colonel Francis W. Parker labored so earnestly for eighteen years for the welfare of children throughout the country by seeking to instruct and inspire those who were to become their teachers.

The Board of Education has thought it fitting to honor the memory of Colonel Parker by setting apart a place for a memorial in the rotunda of the new building. A Memorial Committee, composed of representatives of various organizations of which Colonel Parker was formerly a member, has been formed for the purpose of raising a memorial fund to the end that there may be erected in the place provided a life-size bronze statue of the great leader.

Since the influence of Francis W. Parker is not confined to any one section, nor indeed, to our country alone, it is believed that an opportunity to contribute to the memorial fund should be extended to teachers, pupils, and friends of education throughout the land. It is an omen of happy import that

Dr. J. B. Zubiaur, the Horace Mann of South America, visited the school a few weeks after Colonel Parker passed away, and, anticipating this movement, left a contribution of ten dollars.

If this work undertaken by the Francis W. Parker Memorial Fund Committee meets with your approval, it is respectfully suggested that you fill out the inclosed blank and mail the same with remittance in inclosed envelope at your earliest convenience.

THE COLONEL FRANCIS W. PARKER MEMORIAL FUND COMMITTEE

ORVILLE T. BRIGHT, Chairman.
6515 Harvard Avenue, Chicago, Illinois.

Cook County Normal School Alumni Association
HELEN M. HEFFERAN
SARAH E. GRISWOLD
GEORGE W. FITZ

Chicago Normal School
MELVA LATHAM

Francis W. Parker School
FLORA J. COOK

Chicago Principals' Association
ORVILLE T. BRIGHT
JAMES E. ARMSTRONG
WILLIAM M. GIFFIN
FLORENCE HOLBROOK
KATE STARR KELLOGG
ALBERT G. LANE
FULTON B. ORMSBY

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WILBUR S. JACKMAN

Northern Illinois Teachers' Association
ALFRED BAYLISS
JOHN W. COOK
W. H. HATCH

EDITORIAL NOTES

An Organization Versus An Aggregation

A social institution is an organism, and not simply "a sum of particulars;" hence, there are some difficulties that arise at present under the head of school government. We are still applying means and methods in the effort to develop a social organization which are appropriate only in the formation of a body having the agglutinant characteristics of an aggregation. Few people realize that the transformation of a school of the old type into a social body involves anything more serious than a mere change of name; whereas, it actually means a revolution.

Drill-Work Anti-Social

The dead and persistent drill upon the three R's, backed up by the birch, by bribes, by promises of promotion, by threats, and by cajolery, has but a feeble socializing power. It is, on the contrary, extremely individualistic in its influence through the unwholesome rivalry which it always promotes. There can be no true social life unless there is a problem of common moment which must be solved by all. Under the usual school régime few such problems are presented, and as a result, so far as what is considered actual school work is concerned, each pupil sinks back more and more into himself, and, to a corresponding degree, he inclines to become suspicious of his fellows and, therefore, distinctly anti-social.

Social Organization Through Play

All schools, however, have always had some social life of a more or less organized character. In the plays and games outside of school hours; in the stolen whispers of the study and recitation periods; in the clandestine schemes laid for the discomfiture of the teacher; in the literary societies, and in many other ways through the exercise of their social instincts, the pupils have managed to make their school days tolerable for themselves and, to a like extent, often

intolerable for the teacher. But these aspects of school life have been, and still are, considered as diversions, as incidents and somewhat as detriments to what is called, in school parlance, the "regular work." It is largely due to this fact that in most schools the socializing process as yet remains inchoate.

Social Organization Not Through Play Alone

There is a misconception, almost universal, concerning the organizing center of the school as a social body. Recognizing that in the past the chief organizing influence has come through the exercise of the play instinct, the unguarded inference is that it is now proposed to socialize the school through play alone; or, what comes to the same thing, by the introduction of work which shall be turned into play! It is through this perverted idea that the New Education stands charged with triviality in its methods and with a disregard for that robust discipline which comes through sturdy and purposeful work. Nothing could be farther from the truth. Students in the philosophy of education are slowly coming to understand that the spelling-book, as such; that the endless repetitions which usually accompany "formal number;" that the struggle with words merely for the sake of a vocabulary in reading; that the wrestle with technical grammar as an introduction to the study of language — that all these and other subjects of like kind, as they generally appear in the schools, are essentially unsocial in their influence. Such students believe that herein lies the greatest obstacle to that reform which seeks to socialize the schools. If this so-called work is to be removed from its present dominating position in the curriculum, it is as yet inconceivable to most people how there can be anything to take its place except play. It is only too true that in many schools where the old technical drills have been discarded, in a measure, the teachers have been unable to find anything worthy to take their place, and there at once develops a tendency toward inferior social types of organization. These lower social units taking root readily in a school where many of the old arbitrary means of control have been abandoned, inevitably become immediately inimical to the broader interests of the school as a whole.

An interesting, but exceedingly troublesome illustration of this is found in the recent rapid development of fraternities and sororities in the high schools. These organizations have acquired a strength and significance that seriously threaten, in different ways, the welfare of the schools. Upon this point perhaps a large majority of teachers are agreed; and yet it will tax the wisest counselor of youth to the end of his wits to present the cause of the school against that of the fraternity with a power that will convince.

The Genesis of Fraternities

There can be no doubt that this phase of social development is a rank, wild growth that has almost taken possession of the schools in this transition stage which connects the old anti-social period with the new life that is to be socialized through common effort in legitimate work. The fraternity idea strikes at the root of social life, as it is embodied in democracy's ideal, and it is of sufficient importance, therefore, to demand the most careful attention.

There is no need to dwell upon certain features of fraternities which are so obviously pernicious as to require no special presentation. One of these is the so-called chapter house, that often consists of a small cottage in which are sequestered during their hours of leisure from six to a dozen or more young men. While most parents and teachers are keenly alert to the dangers of such association through the development of certain physical and moral vices which are apt to beset young people of this age, in many cases they seem to be stone-blind to the greater danger that lies in the development of false ideas of life.

The Chapter House

In making inquiry, therefore, into the value of fraternity life among the children, it is necessary to test it entirely in accordance with its power to contribute to the welfare of the school as a social whole. The school, being a social organization, has a right to demand that every individual contribute the best that is in him to the good of all. In making this contribution, it is perfectly natural that much should be done through groups around certain centers that have definite

Group Influence

ideals. The groups being formed, the school, however, still has the right to exact the same things from them that it does from the individuals — namely, the best that they can contribute to the general social welfare. If, now, the fraternities and sororities are so contributing, if they are wielding an influence that is tending to blend all the diverse interests of the school toward one end, the social uplift of all, how does it happen that in schools where these societies exist the classrooms and corridors are thronged with those who are shivering under the frost of ostracism? A true social system is satisfied with nothing short of the best that is in every individual that belongs to it. But here is a system, masquerading as social, which, at the best, is indifferent to the good influences which great numbers of the pupils might exert, and, at the worst, it deliberately sets about preventing the individual from giving his best to the school. Whether in the fraternity or out of it, there is no difference in principle; certain well-defined lines are established beyond which the members may not go, and over which the non-member may not pass. The good that the fraternity seeks is the good of the small coterie composing it — it is distinctly selfish and narrow. To assume anything else is ridiculous; for if it were really the good of the whole, it could not and would not confine its membership to a few. It is essentially aristocratic, and it must, therefore, come into direct conflict, as it does at every point, with the proper organization of the school, which is essentially democratic.

The point to be clearly emphasized is that through the fraternities and sororities the group influence is wrongly directed. The individuals composing the societies possess many elements of leadership, as well as social and other qualities that are the life of the school, and it is most desirable to cultivate them. These young people are at an age when they are susceptible to good impulses; they want to do the "square thing" and to do it in a large way. Nothing could more clearly testify to the utter mismanagement of these pupils by both teachers and parents than the fact that we find them given over to the selfishness of the fraternity idea. This is because there is precious little connection between the subject-matter of the average high-school curriculum and the

things about which the pupils at this stage of life actually are thinking. In matters of daily living, those things of the most intense present interest and importance to them, they are left generally to shift for themselves. They naturally flounder, make mistakes, form bad habits, and often generate low and wrong ideals that distort their vision and enormously diminish their happiness and usefulness in after-life.

It is the period in education which should be devoted concretely to the training for citizenship through the development of true democratic ideals. This should not be attempted merely through a few set lessons in civics, but through a systematic social organization of the school as a whole. The social life of the children, involving, through both work and play, all their community relationships to each other, should be the center and the controlling influence in the school work. In such an organization, naturally, there would be groups; but the group influence, instead of being centered within its own narrow limits, would be diffused throughout the entire school. This would put the school in line with democracy, which is distinguished by a true exaltation of the individual — of every individual. No school can afford to exist a day without the best that every pupil can contribute to the life of all. The pupils can be thoroughly imbued with the principles of democracy only by actually living them out during this most impressionable period of their lives. Many people feel that the various class distinctions developed in fraternity life must be natural. Let no one be so deceived. The distinctions made are in the main the result of a worship of false standards of life; they are the result of wrong ideals, and the effect is as sinister and pernicious upon the members as it is humiliating and embittering upon those who are not.

It is impossible to estimate the wrong inflicted upon those who are not members by the school that permits fraternities.

False Reasoning

Pupils frequently appeal to their teachers or principal for the reason that they are not allowed to join them. The stock reply is full of sophistry, obvious to the dullest pupil. It generally takes the form: "You are now face to face with one of the conditions of life. You cannot always

expect to 'belong.' You are bound to be 'left out' of some things. This is one of them. You must learn to stand alone." The teacher may mean well, but, in view of what the pupil has a right to expect and demand of the school, such an answer is little less than brutal. It is the ages-old answer of the aristocrat to the common people, of the king to the serf. It in no way resembles the frank intercourse between man and man in the organization of a democracy. Such a teacher fails utterly to grasp the situation, and he does not give the correct reply. The case is not parallel with the conditions of after-life, and if it were, it is this "condition of life" that a school fitting its pupils for democracy must train against. The teacher replying thus disregards the rights of the individual, and he salaams and kowtows to the self-appointed aristocracy of his school. The boy has rights. The school advertises open doors and all privileges to those who are well behaved and who can pay the price. Under these conditions the boy enters. He is well-intentioned, and instinctively he feels that he owes his best to the school. He knows he can realize this most fully through association with his fellows. At this point he finds himself barred by fraternity lines; moreover, he finds a school posing under the social theory, yet actually sanctioning an internal organization that deliberately sets itself to humiliate and handicap him as an individual. He finds the school does not live up to what it advertises, and that it has sold him a gold brick. If such a pupil were to go into court, it seems as if he should stand a chance of getting an order compelling the school to lift the boycott. It is the function of the school, if it be the true cradle of democracy, to remove such conditions and to train its pupils in rational and humane methods of so doing.

The genius of the American parent is against the spirit of the fraternity. When one contrasts the effect upon the character of his child that a school will have which is broken up into fraternity factions, with the effect which a training for a similar length of time would have in an institution founded upon the principles that govern Hull-House, or which dominated the Cook County Normal School in Colonel Parker's time, there is simply but one conclusion possible. The one trains the pupils at this most teach-

able period of their lives in all the old social prejudices and traditions that the race is doing its best to slough off; the other broadens and deepens the sympathies; it schools the older in the care of the younger, and it teaches the younger to trust the older. It trains the strong to look after the weak, that the strength of the former may be more surely conserved. In fine, it educates into that broad citizenship which, while recognizing the inestimable value of individual integrity, constitutes the true democratic state.

The Real Solution

Schools can and no doubt will, in time, purge themselves of fraternities by arbitrary means. But the spirit that begot them will still remain and, until the school distinctly improves the quality of its work, it will walk the earth unsatisfied. The radical cure lies deep in the fundamental constitution of the school and in the motives that control its life. We can socialize the schools only through the performance of actual social service, and up to date practically no means of social service in the "regular work" of the school has been provided. Fraternities flourish where the pupils are idle; they represent the feeblest and most primitive effort on the part of the school to organize itself socially; they are natural because there is no larger demand made for the exercise of the social qualities. When the home and school successfully enlist these qualities in the broader interests of both, the fraternity idea will be abandoned in the course of a natural evolution.

W. S. J.

LITERARY NOTES.

Hand Work for Kindergartens and Primary Schools, by Jane L. Hoxie and illustrated by Leila Maude Wilhelm (Milton Bradley Co.), gives directions for some selected lessons in domestic activities, wood-work, raffia, drawing, and blue print.

THE convenient popular edition of the Lewis and Clark Journals, issued by A. S. Barnes & Co. in their successful "Trail-Makers" series, has been recommended by the Reading Circle Board of Nebraska for the use of teachers throughout the state.

IN *The House in the Woods,* by Arthur Henry, just published by A. S. Barnes & Co., it is understood that Mr. Henry has held the mirror up, not only to nature, but to his neighbors, to whom the book is dedicated, and that they have each had an opportunity of criticizing the manuscript.

Practical and Artistic Basketry, by Laura Rollins Tinsley (E. L. Kellogg & Co.), will be found definitely useful to teachers. Material and processes are clearly described and fully illustrated. The book specially recommends itself because every suggestion offered has been tested through the personal experience of the writer.

A. S. BARNES & Co. publish this week Dr. Emelyn L. Coolidge's new book, *The Mother's Manual.* Dr. Coolidge is well known as a visiting physician of the Out Patient Department of the Babies' Hospital, and her book, which embodies the result of years of study and practice, forms the second volume of "The Woman's Home Library."

THE *Frozen North* is an account of the numerous voyages of exploration in the Arctic regions that were made during the nineteenth century, prepared by Miss Edith Horton. The book will serve an excellent purpose as an aid in the study of geography and as an attractive supplementary reader. It is to appear in the early spring. The publishers are D. C. Heath & Co., Boston.

A. S. BARNES & Co. are shortly to publish a new edition of *The Battles of the American Revolution,* by Henry B. Carrington, brevet brigadier general United States Army. This is in response to the demand for an edition at a popular price. The eight topographical maps which were made for it are of exceptional interest and value, and have been indorsed by the War Department. The price of the new edition will be $3 *net.*

IN his biography of *Whistler as I Knew Him,* just published by The Macmillan Co., Mr. Mortimer Menpes tells a curious story of the famous artist. At the little breakfasts which he used to give in Paris and in London he was sometimes forced to be very economical. "He often said to me: 'Look here, Menpes, I wish you would go and buy a bottle of eighteen-penny white wine from the Victorian Wine Co. We will decant it carefully, and, what with my brilliant conversation and the refined atmosphere of the studio, these men will never know whether it is good or bad. Somehow men understand red wine. If you give them a cheap vintage, they recognize vinegar; but with the qualities of white wine

they are not so familiar.' So it always proved to be. This eighteen-penny white wine was produced at the famous Whistler breakfasts, where it was pronounced to be perfect. 'A very sound wine, very sound indeed,' I have heard men say as they held it up to the light, handling it carefully as though it were priceless — in exactly the same way I have seen them caress a blue-and-white plate. I have heard intelligent men dilate for hours upon the beauty and rarity of certain porcelain which I myself have seen Whistler buy at a cheap shop round the corner, or which has been presented at our doors in company with a pound of oriental tea."

Overton and Hill's Nature Study. By FRANK OVERTON, A.M., M.D., assisted by MARY E. HILL, Instructor in Science and Nature Study in the Goodyear Burlingame School, Syracuse, N. Y. New York: American Book Co. Cloth, 12mo, illustrated, pp. 142. $0.40.

This book furnishes a year's work for pupils from eight to eleven years old. The subjects for study are those most familiar to children, such as the fly, the tadpole, frost, the pine tree, golden rod, the bird's nest, etc. The lessons are arranged in the order of the seasons, and throw light on the unfamiliar sides of these familiar things. They are correlated with work in drawing and composition-writing, and teach the pupil not only to observe closely, but to realize the meaning of what he has observed, and to describe it both pictorially and verbally. The book is profusely illustrated, largely from photographs taken by the author. The plan is simple and the method supplies interesting work for young pupils, and affords a good basis for further and more advanced study.

Spencers' Practical Writing. By PLATT R. SPENCER'S SONS. New York: American Book Co. Six Books, per dozen, $0.60.

This new system of writing has been devised because of the distinct and wide-spread reaction from the use of vertical writing in the schools. It is thoroughly up-to-date, embodying all the advantages of the old and of the new. Each word can be written by one continuous movement of the pen. The books teach a plain, practical hand, moderate in slant and free from ornamental curves, shade, and meaningless lines. The stem letters are long enough to be clear and unmistakable. In each of the six numbers composing the series there are twenty-four copies. The copies begin with words and gradually develop into sentences. The letters, both large and small, are taught systematically. Books One and Two contain many illustrations in outline. Each succeeding book presents more work and in greater variety. The ruling of the books is very simple and will in no way unduly confine or hamper the movement of the pen. Instruction is afforded showing how the pupil should sit at the desk and hold the pen and paper. A series of drill movement exercises, thirty-three in number, with directions for their use, accompanies each book. This series should prove most successful, both from the ability and reputation of its authors, and from the fact that teachers are now ready to welcome a system of writing which is at the same time legible, graceful, and easy to learn.